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CONTENTS

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The President's Messages:
Schedule K ... 1031
The Army and Navy ... 1031
Administrative Questions ... 1032
Currency Reform ... 1033
The Progressive Movement in Massachusetts ... 1033
International Peace ... 1034
The Chinese Revolution ... 1035
Russia Triumphs in Persia ... 1035
The Lloyd George Insurance Bill ... 1036
Elijah in Prison ... 1037
The Camorra Trial ... 1038
Premature but Prophetic ... 1038
The Stigmata of Chivalry ... 1038
A Real Comic Supplement ... 1039
The Year and the Years ... 1039
The Tariff on Wool ... 1040
The Russian Treaty ... 1041
A Little Catechism on Money ... 1043
John Bigelow: Gentleman ... 1044
The Russian Treaty, Arbitration, and Hypocrisy ... 1045
By Theodore Roosevelt
An Official Denial ... 1048
The Assurance of Immortality ... 1049
By George Hodges
Alyosha the Pot ... 1052
By Leo Tolstoy
Everybody's Money ... 1055
By Edwin R. A. Seligman
His Mother's Apron-Strings ... 1060
By Isabel C. Barrows
Business Illusions ... 1061
By Herbert G. Stockwell
A Man of Peace at Home ... 1064
By A. R. L.
The Mood of the Son of Man ... 1067
By Arthur H. Gleason
The Spectator ... 1068
The New Books ... 1070
Letters to The Outlook ... 1073
By the Way ... 1076
Index to Volume 99 ... 1077

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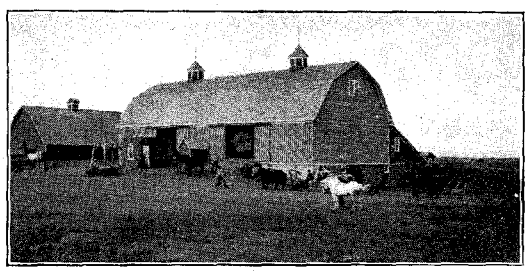

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The Outlook

DECEMBER 30, 1911

LYMAN ABBOTT, Editor-in-Chief HAMILTON W. MABIE, Associate Editor
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THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE ON SCHEDULE K

Two additional Messages were sent to Congress by President Taft last week. The one in which the country will probably be most interested related to the tariff, and in particular to Schedule K. The Message was accompanied by the voluminous report of the Tariff Board on the woolen schedule. In his Message President Taft recommended, on the basis of the findings of the Tariff Board, that Congress proceed to a consideration of Schedule K with a view to its revision and a general reduction of its rates. He announced that the report showed that the rates of duty in Schedule K were too high in several particulars. The present method of assessing the duty on raw wool, for instance, operates to exclude certain kinds of wools of fine quality from the American market, and therefore lessens the range of wools available to the domestic manufacturer. The duty on scoured wool he declares to be prohibitory and to operate to exclude certain low-priced foreign wools, which are nevertheless valuable material for manufacture. He declares that the average cost of production for all kinds of wool in this country is higher than the cost in the chief competing country; and that this difference in cost is more than covered by the present duty. The duties on many classes of wool manufactures, says the President, are prohibitory and greatly in excess of the difference in cost of production here and abroad. This is true of yarns, with the exception of those of a very high grade, and of low and medium grade cloth of medium and heavy weight. On cheap and medium grade cloths the existing rates are frequently as high as one hundred and fifty per cent *ad valorem*, and on some cheap goods they are two hundred per cent. Such rates are prohibitory, and the goods are therefore not imported; but it should be noted that the prices of similar domestic fabrics are not increased by the full amount of the duty. Such prohibitory duties, in the judgment of the President, eliminate the possibility of foreign competition, and form a temptation to monopoly and conspiracies to control domestic prices. They are much in excess of the difference in the cost of production here and abroad, and should be reduced to a point which accords with this principle. The findings of the Board show, he declares, that the actual manufacturing cost in the woolen industry is much higher in this country than it is abroad, that in the making of yarn and cloth the domestic manufacturer has in general no advantage in the form of superior machinery or more efficient labor to offset the higher wages paid in this country, and that the cost of turning wool into yarn in this country is about double that in the leading competing country, and the cost of turning yarn into cloth is somewhat more than double. The President therefore urges that action be taken with these facts in mind to the end that an important and established industry may not be jeopardized. The findings of fact by the Board, the President concludes, show ample reason for the downward revision of Schedule K. To this conclusion, we are sure, the American people have already come, though by less scientific methods than those of the Tariff Board. It is a gratification to know that the popular demand for a revision downward in the rates of Schedule K is justified by the findings of the Tariff Board. We comment elsewhere on the issue which is raised by the Tariff Board's report.

THE PRESIDENT'S RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE ARMY AND NAVY

The day after he sent his communication to Congress with regard to the tariff the President sent in another installment of his annual Message. The principal subject of this Message was the currency, but together with that subject he brought to the consideration of Congress a number of other matters of importance to

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the Nation. He called in question the provisions of the bill now in Congress which is designed to increase the efficiency of the army. Some of these provisions have to do with the organization of the army, a matter upon which the ordinary citizen should in general take the recommendation of the expert. One feature, however, of this bill is a matter of popular concern, for it deals with the term of enlistment. This is a matter that affects the character of the army as a whole. At present the term of enlistment is three years. Secretary Stimson points out that on this subject there are two views. One is in favor of increasing that term to five years, thus giving a chance for the building up of a body of men who would regard arms as a calling. The other view is in favor of shortening the term of enlistment, so that as many different men as possible may have a brief experience in the army and then go out into civil life with that training. The Secretary of War favors the shorter term as being more in accord with the spirit of democracy, and calls attention, moreover, to the fact that it would favor the development of a body of men who could be called upon in case of emergency. The President takes the same view as that of the Secretary of War. Regarding the needs of the navy, the President calls attention to several subjects, but two will interest all the people. One of these recommendations is that we should continue the policy of building two battleships a year until the Panama Canal is finished. The other matter is the announcement that he is to present some time in the future as a separate subject to Congress the question of the abolition of unnecessary navy-yards. He renews his recommendation of a Council of National Defense for the purpose of increasing the co-ordination and efficiency of the army and navy for the sake of the whole Nation rather than for the sake of separate departments. As regards the Panama Canal, the President urges Congress to provide for the government of the Canal Zone with the view principally to the management of the Canal as a great business, and, second, recommends to Congress that the power of fixing tolls be intrusted to the President. As to the Philippines, the President's principal recommendation is for the prompt disposal of the friars' lands. We are not quite as sure as the President is that the dangers in this matter are slight.

SOME ADMINISTRATIVE QUESTIONS

Regarding waterways and harbors, the President makes his recommendations in accordance with the view which he has heretofore advocated that it is better to do adequate work on a few important projects than to spread appropriations for waterways and harbors over many projects. He urges improvement in the organization and practices of the Federal courts. With reference to the Post-Office, his principal recommendation is in favor of a parcels post. In this we are convinced that the President has the country behind him. Under the subject of the Post-Office Department he urges that the parcels post be introduced in a preliminary way by its establishment on certain selected rural routes. How the parcels post should be introduced is a question of Administrative judgment; but whether it should be introduced is a question of public policy. On the question of Administrative judgment there is probably a wide difference of opinion, but on the question of public policy the only difference of opinion is occasioned by the objections of some special interests. We are glad that the President has called the attention of Congress as well as of the country to this important matter, and we heartily agree with him when he says that, instead of destroying the business of the country, the adoption of a parcels post will increase business for the benefit of all. He renews his recommendation that "all local offices throughout the country" be put into the classified service, and their incumbents be appointed without the necessity of being confirmed by the Senate, so that neither the President nor the members of either house will longer have to bear the burden of disposing of patronage. This would mean that all collectors of internal revenue and customs, all postmasters, all immigration commissioners and marshals, would secure their places on merit after suitable examinations. All citizens who would like to see public office held by those who are intent not primarily on securing political favor but on rendering public service will welcome this recommendation of the President, even if it only helps to set a standard for action in the future. The one subject of what may be called primarily social concern to which the President refers in his Message is that of employers' liability. He calls attention to the fact that the Commission considering this subject will soon report to Congress.

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CURRENCY REFORM: THE PRESIDENT'S VIEWS

That part of this Message which refers to finance, taken in connection with the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. MacVeagh, naturally directs especial attention to the plan of currency reform made by the Monetary Commission. This plan, though not yet officially published, is known in its broad outlines, and will soon be before Congress. Elsewhere in this issue of The Outlook will be found an article by Professor Seligman, which describes the provisions of this plan, and an editorial in the form of a catechism, which endeavors in simple language to explain the essential principles that ought to underlie a sound system of currency in this country. Everybody who thinks at all about the subject agrees that our currency and banking system needs reform. There is danger, however, that there may be so much disagreement about details as to endanger effective legislation during the present session of Congress. In our judgment this danger is greater than any probable danger that may come because the plan of the Monetary Commission is not exactly right in every part. President Taft and Mr. MacVeagh both remind the public that Congress has for a long time been discussing and debating the question of the reform of our banking and currency laws. For the very purpose of giving important details careful, expert consideration, the Monetary Commission was created, and it has for several years been devoting itself to the most careful review of details. The plan the Monetary Commission recommends for enactment into legislation is the fruit of the thought, not merely of bankers, but of all classes of well-trained citizens—business men, lawyers, economists, and university professors. It is a great mistake to regard it as the product of mere financial interests. Mr. Taft meets the not uncommonly expressed fear that the great financial interests of the country—the so-called money power—shall be given too large control in the proposed new system, by saying that the new law ought to "completely protect and assure the individuality and the independence of each bank, to the end that any tendency there may ever be toward a consolidation of the money or banking power of the Nation shall be defeated." We heartily agree, and believe that the plan of the Monetary Commission provides such precautions. Moreover, as Mr. Taft also says, "it will always be possible, of course, to correct any features of the new law which may in practice prove to be unwise."

THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY ON CURRENCY REFORM

Mr. MacVeagh declares, with reason we think, that the action of Congress should be prompt; that the last three or four years have given ample time for discussion; that this discussion has been thorough; and that the time for definite action has arrived. All those who believe in banking and currency reform, and especially those who desire to see the banking currency of the country based on credit instead of United States bonds, may wisely take the view of a correspondent of The Outlook who dissents from some of the provisions recommended by the Monetary Commission and who says, nevertheless: "If the discussion of what you call details (I call them vital economic aspects) is likely to interfere with securing from Congress recognition of a credit currency on any terms, then the details should not be discussed." We hope that the prevailing interest in the currency question will not divert public attention from one other recommendation in Mr. MacVeagh's report. He urges the appointment of a commission consisting of Representatives of Congress and the Executive Departments, to frame a budget system for the Government. One of the serious defects of American finance is that Congress passes its appropriation bills without any definite idea of what the sum total is to be. The result of this system is to give us what are called "Billion Dollar Congresses." England has a Government Budget, and the Ministers of the Government present to Parliament an exact estimate of receipts and expenditures for the financial year. This prevents extravagance and waste, and enables the country to determine whether the party in power are good business managers. A similar system should be adopted in this country.

THE PROGRESSIVE MOVEMENT IN MASSACHUSETTS

Massachusetts is hardly a State which can be accused, politically speaking, of dangerous radical tendencies. The formation there of a promising Progressive organization within the Republican party is therefore an event of some significance. On Saturday evening, December 16, a public meeting was held in Boston for the formation of such an organiza-

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tion. Tremont Temple was completely filled with a crowd that was enthusiastic and demonstrative. The Rev. Samuel M. Crothers, whose volumes of essays, graceful, humorous, and full of insight, have been hitherto better known to the public than his political activities, if there have been any such, presided. The meeting was addressed by Mr. Gifford Pinchot, Governor Bass, of New Hampshire, and Mr. George L. Record, of New Jersey. The object of the Progressive movement was described by Governor Bass as being "actually and wisely to put in force the fundamental principles underlying our form of government. This may be stated in various ways: To give each voter an equal voice in the choice of elective officers, or, conversely, to prevent the small and influential group of men from controlling the body politic for their own selfish purposes; or, again, to keep the special interests and great corporations from naming and controlling men in public office; or, on the other hand, to prevent the demagogue from exploiting the people and the Government for the advancement of his own personal ambitions." The same idea was expressed in other words by Mr. Pinchot, who said: "Our Government is based on the theory that the people are fit to rule, and ought to rule. The Progressive movement is based on the belief that the people ought to rule, and on the sorrowful but definite knowledge that the bosses have been ruling instead." With these declarations of purpose the meeting seemed to be in thorough accord. It was not the purpose of the meeting, as was announced by Mr. Crothers, to declare in favor of any Presidential candidate, and no attempt was made to put the audience on record in favor of any one. Mr. Pinchot, however, while recognizing that the meeting as such would not commit itself to any one, declared his own personal adherence to Mr. La Follette as the Republican candidate for the Presidency, and asserted that the country is turning rapidly to him as the pioneer among Progressives and as a constructive statesman.

INTERNATIONAL PEACE

Mr. Andrew Carnegie's gift of ten million dollars for the promotion of international peace will furnish for this cause an annual income of about five hundred thousand dollars. The Board of Trustees organized to administer this fund intrusted the task of developing a plan to an executive committee including in its membership Senator Elihu Root, President Nicholas Murray Butler, ex-Governor Andrew J. Montague, of Virginia, Professor James Brown Scott, Solicitor of the Department of State, and others of equal eminence. This movement cannot be regarded as in the hands of impracticable and ineffective idealists. Three divisions of work are established by this Committee—the Divisions of International Law, of Economics and History, of Intercourse and Education. The Division of International Law will provide for the preparation and publication of a collection of all known arbitrations, arbitration treaties, and authoritative judicial decisions bearing on the subject, and for the establishment of a Summer School of International Law to be held in the Peace Palace at The Hague; the general object being to secure a background of recognized law which can be studied, and its principles applied, in dealing with international problems. The Division of Economics and History, under the direction of Dr. John Bates Clark, has already brought together a conference of leading economists and publicists, and is securing the co-operation of economists throughout the civilized world for the purpose of considering the relation of economics, finance, organized labor, and organized capital to the complicated questions of war and peace. The Division of Intercourse and Education, under the direction of President Butler, of Columbia University, will use the portion of funds intrusted to it largely in aiding Peace Societies already organized, which are to be brought into closer affiliation under the reorganized American Peace Society, in carrying on a work of education and propaganda. This programme seems to The Outlook a very wise one. The basic principle underlying this movement is that international law is a better means of securing justice than war. Its first and fundamental problem, therefore, is to learn what is and what ought to be international law. The great economic forces operating in this commercial age are very powerful factors to be reckoned with in any moral reform movement, and it is not unreasonable to hope that under the Department of Economics and History a good deal of light will be thrown upon the operation of these forces in their bearing upon industrial as well as upon national peace. It is much wiser to secure a reorganization and realignment of the

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Peace Societies, and work through them in a campaign of education, than to create a new society to compete with those which are already existing.

THE CHINESE REVOLUTION

The latest despatches from China indicate a possibility, perhaps even a probability, that the revolution will be brought to an end by the establishment of a constitutional monarchy. The Outlook has often expressed the belief that the revolution might be settled by the establishment of a constitutional monarchy, and in its issue of December 16 the opinion that it ought to be settled in this way. Delegates representing the Revolutionary Republicans and the Monarchists have met in a Peace Conference at Shanghai. Mr. Thomas F. Millard, the well-equipped correspondent of the New York "Times" in China, is of the opinion that Dr. Wu Ting-fang, formerly Chinese Minister to the United States, and now representative of the Republicans in the Peace Conference, "is willing to concede a limited monarchy rather than prolong the war." The calling of this Peace Conference and the friendly relations which are believed to exist between Wu Ting-fang and Tang Shao-yi, the representative of the Imperialists, indicate that the despotic Manchu rule in China has gone forever. It is possible that the calling of this Peace Conference and the negotiations between the revolutionists and the Imperialists have been hastened by the attitude of the foreign Powers. Domestic affairs, as well as foreign interests, are in a state of chaos in China; business is interrupted, martial law has taken the place of orderly government, and the usual bands of pillagers and outlaws follow in the train of both armies. The Governments of the United States, Great Britain, Japan, France, Germany, and Russia have semi-officially notified the delegates to the Peace Conference of the earnest hope of these six Governments that reasonable terms of peace may be agreed upon, in order that order and stability may be re-established. The concerted action of the six Powers in behalf of peace is believed at Washington to be the result of the initiative taken by the Government of the United States. Some weeks ago the State Department addressed an identical note to the European Powers interested in China, suggesting the concerted action which has now been taken. The fact that the United States Government has led in this matter is accepted by the Chinese Peace Commissioners as a guaranty that it is not for the purpose of browbeating or exploiting China, but is prompted by a desire to see China's own best interests protected.

A REPUBLIC OR A CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY?

We are already reaping the reward of what may fairly be said to be the magnanimous course of the United States in the Boxer troubles and in the remission of the Boxer indemnity. Americans who really desire to see popular governments and popular rights fostered and grow in China will do well to throw all their influence on the side of a constitutional monarchy, and against the immediate establishment of a so-called republic. Yuan Shi-kai, the Imperial Prime Minister and Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Army and Navy, has recently given expression to opinions which help to confirm this view. The Prime Minister's statement appears in an interview printed in a Russian paper which has just come to hand and from which we translate the interview as follows:

> At the present time, China is divided into two camps—those who favor a republic and those who desire a constitutional monarchy. In my opinion, a republican form of government is the ideal one for a people that is intellectually prepared for it; but in China it is only a minority who think; the majority do not think at all. The minority, therefore, must think for the majority and do what is best for the whole population. A pure republic will be possible only after a long process of evolution. A republican form of government, adopted hastily, will result in general disorder and internal conflicts without end. In my judgment, a monarchy, reformed and purified, is capable of giving us a good administration.

We repeat what we said on December 16. Political history almost universally shows that monarchy, limited by constitutionalism, must, in the development of any nation, precede a republic of the purely democratic form. It was so with the inhabitants of this country; it must be so, in our judgment, with the inhabitants of China.

RUSSIA TRIUMPHS IN PERSIA

Russia has gained her point in Persia. Mr. Shuster is to go. The Persian Parliament, which for weeks, against the advice of the Ministry, has stood firm against the ultimatum of Russia and in support of Persia's American Treasurer-General, has at last yielded. Mr. Shuster is to go, and no suc-

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cessor is to be appointed without the consent of both Russia and Great Britain. Mr. Shuster's offense as told to the world by Russia was threefold. First, he appointed as one of his financial assistants, whose field of operation was to be within the Russian sphere of influence, a British subject. Second, he refused to allow his police officers, engaged in taking possession of the property of a Persian subject who had been implicated in the revolutionary aspirations of the ex-Shah, to be prevented from doing their duty by the orders of a Russian Consul-General. Third, he gave expression too frankly and undiplomatically to his opinion with regard to the activities of Russia in Persia. These are the grounds upon which Russia has demanded, first, an apology from the Persian Government, and, second, Mr. Shuster's dismissal, on pain of an invasion of Persian territory by Russian troops. But it is difficult to believe that these grounds were not rather pretexts on the part of Russia. Mr. Shuster within six months has, according to his own report, turned Persia from a country well-nigh bankrupt into a country well on the road to solvency. Lord Morley two weeks ago in the British House of Lords declared that "Mr. Shuster, everybody now knows, is a man whose zeal, whose ability, and whose single-mindedness are beyond dispute." It is certainly indisputable that Mr. Shuster's administration has been not only immediately beneficial but full of promise for the well-being of Persia. But there is strong ground for suspicion that such an administration of Persia's internal affairs is precisely what Russia does not want. Russia's aspirations along its southeastern frontier and in the direction of the Persian Gulf have long been known. Her activities in that direction were temporarily suspended by the diversion of Russian energies during the war with Japan, but there is considerable evidence to indicate that she is once more turning her attention toward the southeast. If Russia hopes ultimately to convert her sphere of influence in Persia into a sphere of annexation, she can only look upon the progress of the Persian people toward a stable, solvent, and efficient government as inimical to her aims. It is undoubtedly true, as has been said by the London "Times," that Russia and Great Britain interfere in Persian affairs in a way which would be improper were Persia a really independent country in the full meaning of the word. It is undoubtedly true that such interference on the part of Russia and Great Britain has been made necessary by the impotence and ineffectiveness of the Persian Government in the past. But if the Governments of Great Britain and Russia were sincere in their declaration in 1907 of their intention to preserve the independence and the integrity of Persia they should not carry their interference in Persian affairs to the point of handicapping Persia's sincere efforts to make herself worthy of real independence.

THE LLOYD GEORGE INSURANCE BILL

The British Parliament has adjourned for the year, having accomplished in its two unusually long sessions two great achievements. At the spring session the Parliament Bill, destroying the veto power of the House of Lords, was enacted; at the autumn session, just closed, Mr. Lloyd George's Insurance Bill was made law. The Insurance Bill is a gigantic measure of social reform. It is estimated that it will affect fifteen millions of workers. The principle of the bill is the insurance of working men and women against the loss and suffering which come from sickness and disability. The plan involves a tremendous number of details, and many exceptions to and modifications of its general rules; but in the simplest cases, which will doubtless include very much the largest proportion of the cases under the bill, the procedure will be as follows: The worker will be obliged to contribute to the insurance fund eight cents a week (six cents in the case of a woman), which will be deducted from his wages; the employer will be obliged to contribute six cents a week to the fund for each employee. To these contributions will be added by the Government a sufficient amount to make up two-ninths of the benefits subsequently paid in the case of men, and one-fourth of the benefits in the case of women. The worker will thereupon be entitled to certain regular benefits in case of sickness—free medical treatment; free treatment in a sanitarium if necessary; a payment of two and a half dollars a week (one dollar and eighty-seven cents in the case of a woman) for a period not exceeding twenty-six weeks from the fourth day of sickness; a payment, in case of subsequent disablement, amounting to one dollar and a quarter a week from the time of the termination of the sick benefit; and, in the

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case of a woman who is either insured herself or is the wife of an insured man, a maternity benefit of seven dollars and a half. The collection of the contributions and the distribution of the benefits will be made through approved benefit societies and trades unions, in the case of those workers who are members of such bodies. In the case of others the contributions will be collected through the post-office, and the benefits distributed through local health committees to be organized for the purpose. These health committees will have other functions, such as investigating and reporting upon health conditions in their districts. A remarkable minor provision of the bill is that where excessive sickness in a locality is found to be due to the fault of some person, a claim may be made against such person for the extra expenditure incurred by reason of the sickness. A landlord, therefore, who shall permit his tenements to get into such a condition that they cause excessive sickness will be compelled to pay for his negligence. Contributions on the part of the workers will be compulsory in the case of all persons under contract of service, with the exception of a few specified classes who work under exceptional conditions. When the bill was first introduced by Mr. Lloyd George, its underlying principle received the approval of all political parties, and of practically all classes in the community. In its progress through Parliament, however, opposition to its details arose—partly partisan, partly selfish, and partly, doubtless, sincere. It has been asserted that the rapidity with which this complicated measure was put through the House of Commons by an autocratic majority made it impossible for the details of the bill to be properly considered and satisfactorily worked out. The progress of the Insurance Bill has aroused anew bitter criticism of those peculiarly drastic forms of closure, the "guillotine" and the "kangaroo closure," which British Governments have found it necessary to invent and adopt in order to get through with the tremendous amount of public business which confronts the House of Commons at each session. It is to be observed, however, that the criticisms of these methods come, as usual, from the Opposition, and that they have not been accompanied by any constructive suggestion for the reconciliation of the necessity of getting things done in Parliament with the desirability of permitting untrammeled debate.

ELIJAH IN PRISON

Homicide is not made desirable by calling it religious. This is the substance of the conclusion reached by the Court that has tried and convicted the leader of an eccentric religious sect in Maine. Because he caused the death of six of his followers he has been solemnly declared guilty, and in punishment for causing the death of one of them he has been sentenced to ten years in prison. That is where he belongs unless it can be shown that he is, through insanity, morally irresponsible; and in that case he belongs in an insane asylum. He certainly does not belong at large. For at least fifteen years this man Sandford has been a menace to the community in which he has lived. He has mental qualities which have exercised a spell, as it were, upon certain unintelligent and rather weak-willed individuals. As a consequence, he has created a fanatical religious body which he has called "The Holy Ghost and Us." The mental level of his followers is sufficiently indicated by this title. For years tales of the extremes to which these people have gone in their superstitious practice have been rife. There have been tales of cruelty inspired less by a fanatical idealism than by fear of the supernatural. Like Dowie, this man allowed himself to be called Elijah, promised all sorts of cures through prayer, got money by appealing to his followers' credulity, and based his whole leadership on a foundation, not of the exercise of reason, but of reliance on literalism. In some way—through faith, as his sympathizers would put it—he succeeded in a remarkably short time in building on a bleak hill some ugly and rather extensive frame buildings. These constituted the center of the sect, and were named, comprehensively, Shiloh. After the same fashion he secured two yachts, and on these were loaded a number of his deluded followers—men, women, and children. One of these boats, named The Kingdom, was wrecked off the coast of Africa, and thus a number of African natives were probably saved from being converted out of a genuine though savage heathenism into one that is artificial and degenerate. The leader of the sect himself was on the other boat, and directed his course as best he could toward Greenland, with designs upon the Eskimos. On the general principle that he might unload upon the Almighty his personal responsibility for this ship-load of people, he made no adequate provision for food.

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Much to his confusion, he found he could not get rid of his responsibility in such a fashion, for, as a consequence of the six deaths that occurred on account of the privations, he was indicted and tried in a United States court. This is not the only man in America who by appealing to the credulity of the ignorant has succeeded in creating a community chiefly notable for religious and moral squalor; but this is the most notable instance in recent years of such a leader's undergoing at the hands of the State the restraint he should be made to feel when in the name of religion he endangers human life and social order.

THE CAMORRA TRIAL

The most extraordinary or many remarkable features connected with the trial of the Camorrists at Viterbo occurred last week when the jury notified the presiding judge that it did not wish to hear further evidence. The press despatches added that the trial itself appeared to be on the verge of a collapse. This last statement is, we judge, hardly justified by the facts. The trial has been going on for nearly nine months, and hundreds of witnesses have been called; originally each side proposed to call three hundred witnesses, but happily for the jury the number has been materially reduced during the actual trial. What seems to have been the last straw on the patience of the jurymen was the announcement that counsel on each side of the case intended to consume about two weeks in the final argument. The Outlook some time ago gave its readers a full account of the charges which have led to this trial; of the origin and character of the Camorra itself; and of the tremendous effort which the Government of Italy is now making to root out a recognized evil. The newspaper reports of the trial have stated that the utmost disorder and confusion have prevailed in the court-room, and that the prisoners and their counsel have carried to an astonishing excess the greater liberty of conduct which Italian court traditions seem to permit. On the other hand, very interesting interviews, printed by the New York "Sun," with ex-Mayor McClellan and Mr. Arthur Train, the well-known lawyer and writer, both of whom attended the trial at an earlier stage, seem to show that these newspaper reports have been very much exaggerated. Mr. Train in particular, who as a former District Attorney is thoroughly conversant with criminal procedure, states that the jury is largely made up of professional and business men; that it is quite impossible that such men should try to bring the trial to an improper or hasty conclusion; that the prosecution is very far from being a farce, and that the court's methods do not greatly differ from those of American courts; and that the judge had full power and would hardly permit the trial to be brought to a conclusion in any irregular way, or refuse to accept proper evidence at the request of the jury.

PREMATURE BUT PROPHETIC

The Outlook, which takes a deep interest in the proper housing of the art societies of the metropolis, regrets to announce that the report that six prominent citizens of New York have pledged themselves to give $1,500,000 to secure the erection of a beautiful and adequate building is premature. The plan to bring together ten prominent art organizations of New York under the direction of the National Academy Association has been approved by all those bodies, and a tentative organization has been effected. It will be the first purpose and work of this Association to secure an exhibition building which will amply provide for exhibitions of all these associations, and serve in a beautiful and permanent way to house the arts in New York and to interpret their significance in the civilization of the metropolis. The announcement of a gift of one and a half millions was premature, but may be accepted as prophetic; for it is impossible to believe that so noble a project can fall to the ground through lack of public interest. If there is one thing which gives a city rank, not only as big but as great, it is a generous recognition of the arts and an impressive provision for their housing.

THE STIGMATA OF CHIVALRY

A French author has announced a method of determining the quality of one's ancestry which will save an immense amount of trouble to the genealogists of the patriotic and ancestral societies. He has discovered a group of physical signs and marks which he calls the "stigmata of chivalry," and which prove descent from our armor-bearing ancestors. He believes that the casque, or headpiece, which was one of the principal objects of mediæval and later armor, by irritation of certain places on the head and neck for several generations in an armor-bearing family, created conditions which have been transmitted to their descendants. He is also convinced

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that the use of the sword gradually shaped what he calls the martial hand, while the general use of arms and the wearing of armor produced a courage which unmistakably descends from soldiers, and he quotes a characteristic bit from Balzac: "In families where the occupation of arms is traditional, it communicates to the men a sort of distinction and to the women an indefinable grace." This is a large interpretation of Shakespeare's oft-quoted phrase, "like the dyer's hand." One would feel surer of the transmission of chivalric physical traits in the case of women if their apparel had not changed so often and so radically that, like the waves of the sea, one fashion almost instantly obliterates another. It is appalling that the wearing of the pot-hat—undoubtedly the ugliest of all human dress ever devised—may put its stamp on the descendants of the unlucky men who are compelled to wear it in this generation. Henceforward the ancestral societies will not need genealogists, but expert physical examiners.

A REAL COMIC SUPPLEMENT

The only practicable way of fighting the so-called comic supplement issued by a great number of American newspapers for children, and, with unconscious irony, issued on Sunday, is to put something better in its place. The Outlook has more than once enforced its judgment that, in point of art, taste, or morals, nothing could be worse than most of these supplements; but it is not easy to put something better in their place, and the Indianapolis "Sunday Star" is rendering the whole country a service by an interesting experiment which it has undertaken, under the direction of Miss Helen McKay Steele, of presenting a well-drawn, well-printed, and thoroughly interesting page for children which at once meets the needs of the eye, the love of humor, and the demands of good taste. The offenses of the comic supplement as issued by most American newspapers have been the vulgarization of serious subjects, the teaching of irreverence for parents and older people, and a hideous caricature of races and types of characters, which could not fail to breed in children the meanest forms of race and class prejudice. The so-called comic supplement is really poisoning the stream at the fountain head; an offense which has always been considered one of the most serious crimes against society. The Indianapolis "Sunday Star" is presenting color schemes which are acceptable to the eye, drawing very much better than anything that appears in most of the comic supplements, and a selection and treatment of subjects that are humorous without being vulgar or demoralizing. The letterpress, which substitutes Jingo and Jango and Mr. Lion and Mr. Fox for the tramps and "bums" who have been the heroes of the stories told in the comic supplements, are interesting and humorous. The success of the experiment of the Indianapolis "Sunday Star" is a matter of National importance. There is every reason why it ought to succeed; and if it does, the country will see a new illustration of the old adage that "nothing succeeds like success," especially in the counting-room.

THE YEAR AND THE YEARS

New Year's Day opens another chapter in the book of history, which is also the book of revelation; for the showing forth of that will of God which expresses his nature and reveals man's destiny did not end when the last chapter in the New Testament was finished. It will not end until the record of the last day of man's stay on earth has been made. The years are as much a part of this sublime revelation as the written word; for words cannot open their depths of meaning until time has interpreted them through experience, which is the contact of the heart of man with the facts of life. It is through this contact, in pain and work and sorrow, that men are trained for their great destiny, and that, out of the deeps of the soul, the strength and beauty of the hero and the saint rise into the light and show us where we may hope to climb and what we may hope to become. So the New Year becomes, not only a fresh beginning for us who must strive and endure, but another stage in the coming of God into his world in the clearer showing forth of his will.

Our little judgments of the meaning of things are made from day to day, and are like the fitful judgments of children on their teachers. We see but a little strip of country, and we speak as if the landscape were before us. We read here and there a few paragraphs in the story of man's life in the world, and condemn or approve it as if we knew the end from the beginning. We are swept along by some mighty tide in the affairs of the world so swiftly that only now

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and then do we see for a moment whither we are moving; but we speak of progress or decline, of advance or retrogression, as if we saw the whole sweep of things, and knew "the far-off, divine event" toward which the whole creation moves. We call God to the bar of our petty court of the hour, and judge him as if, in the confusion and mist of the world movement, we saw clearly the range of his plan and shared with him the vision of the complete fulfillment of the purpose for which his creation exists.

So, in our blindness, we talk of a mechanical age, and arraign the wonderful devices and instruments which science has put into our hands as if they were the enemies of our spirits, and do not see the finer uses, the services to the spirit, of these wonderful contrivances in which the genius of the discoverers and inventors finds its inspiring play. We speak of the railway, the steamship, the telegraph, the telephone, the printing-press, as if these marvelous extensions of our senses were conceived in materialism and born in iniquitous greed; and we do not see, until time has interpreted the meaning of these wonders, that they have made the whole world a neighborhood, and brought together men who live at the ends of the earth, and made us aware of the conditions under which women and children live everywhere, and brought home to us through picture and book and spoken word the misery and the injustice in the earth, and, for the first time in history, laid the sorrows of the world on our shoulders, and driven home to our consciences the awful truth that we are literally our brothers' keepers.

So, too, in the uproar of great forces harnessed to the business of the world, in the roar of trains thundering across the continents, in the sinking of shafts into the depths of the earth, the building of vast factories, the launching of great ships, the shadows of colossal buildings thrown across streets congested with traffic, we have seen only a mad pursuit of money, a brutal greed, a barter of things of the spirit for the mechanical toys that amuse for the moment and then break in our hands; we have called God into our petty court and charged him with forgetfulness of his world and with the defeat of his kingdom.

And now our eyes are opened and we see that these colossal activities have compelled us to face the fate of the men and women who serve these mighty engines, to measure the strain on humanity of these vast industries, to count the cost to the human spirit of this unprecedented prosperity. We declared that our souls were lost in the din of traffic, and, behold! in the very heart of the market-place we have come face to face with our souls; and now, for the first time in any clear way and on any great scale, we are striving to make the market-place as clean as the church, and we are beginning to understand that business and righteousness cannot be divorced, and that, in the last analysis, the real product of business is not wealth, but character.

So God makes the troubled years of the life of men on the earth wonderful with the revelation of his will and the unveiling of what is in the soul of man; so the great book of revelation is written, chapter by chapter; so the seed sown centuries ago ripens to-day; and the word of the Christ becomes the fact of history.

THE TARIFF ON WOOL

Robbing Peter to pay Paul is not honest. This, says the Free-Trader, is what Protection does. It takes from the consumer in taxes what it gives to the producer in profits.

A Consumers' League to exclude sweat-shop work from the market in order to secure fair wages to the workers is honest. This, says the Protectionist, is what Protection does. It protects the wage-earner from unfair competition with the ill-paid labor of other countries.

Can a nation successfully maintain a Consumers' League for the working men without injustice to the purchasing men? This is the tariff issue reduced to its simplest terms.

The Republican party says this can be done, and proposes a plan for doing it, namely: Create a non-partisan tariff board of experts; let them ascertain the cost of production at home and abroad; base the tariff on their report; so adjust it as to prevent the foreign manufacturer from underselling the domestic manufacturer and so preventing him from paying a fair wage to his employees and getting a fair profit for himself; and, to prevent bargaining and log-rolling, revise the tariff always schedule by schedule. The President appointed such a Board. It is non-partisan and is composed of experts. It has undertaken the work of

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revision schedule by schedule. It has presented its report on the wool schedule, and the President has now laid this report before Congress. The fact that the report is unanimous is significant. No bi-partisan committee of Congress could possibly be unanimous on the subject of the tariff.

Readers who are interested in the details of this report are referred to the official summary of the report itself, which can be obtained through the Congressman of each district. Enough here to say that the public opinion that the wool schedule needs revision downward is by this report abundantly justified. The tariff on wool is not merely a well-considered Consumers' League. It is robbing Peter to pay Paul.

How far the present wool tariff transgresses even the Republican view of a justifiable tariff is plainly set forth by both the Tariff Board and the President. For example:

Says the report: "The duty on shoddy bears no relation to the cost of manufacture. A much lower duty would equalize the difference in cost of production to the shoddy manufacturer."

And the President, specifying certain duties, says: "Although these duties do not increase prices of domestic goods by anything like their full amount, it is none the less true that such prohibitive duties eliminate the possibility of foreign competition, even in time of scarcity; that they form a temptation to monopoly and conspiracies to control domestic prices; that they are much in excess of the difference in cost of production here and abroad, and that they should be reduced to a point which accords with this principle."

Is not the object of Protection to "eliminate the possibility of foreign competition"? It is not. Its object is to secure competition on equal terms, that the foreign manufacturer, who pays low wages, may not be able to compel the American manufacturer to either lower his wages or close his factory.

The Outlook agrees with the estimate of the President that "no legislative body has ever had presented to it a more complete and exhaustive report than this on so difficult and complicated a subject as the relative costs of wool and woolens the world over." It also agrees with the recommendation of the President: "I now recommend that the Congress proceed to a consideration of this schedule with a view to its revision and a general reduction of its rates."

Even a bi-partisan Congress ought to be able to unite in complying with this recommendation.

The Republicans believe in (1) a protective tariff; (2) so adjusted as to equalize the cost of production of foreign and American goods in the American market; (3) the adjustment based on the findings of a non-partisan expert Board. On the unanimous report of such a Board a Republican President tells the country that the present tariff is not in harmony with Republican principles, that it forms a temptation to monopoly, is in excess of the difference in cost of production, and should be reduced.

The Democrats are not agreed as to Protection nor as to a Tariff Board. But they have long maintained that the wool tariff is not in harmony with Democratic principles, that it forms a temptation to monopoly, and should be reduced.

The two parties may not agree as to the amount of reduction. But that is no reason why the Democratic House should not make as large a reduction as the Republican Senate will agree to. Democratic principles and Republican principles both demand a revision downward in the tariff on wool.

THE RUSSIAN TREATY

The House of Representatives, on December 14, passed, with only one dissenting vote, a series of resolutions terminating the Russian treaty because "the Government of Russia has violated the treaty" by "refusing to honor American passports duly issued to American citizens on account of race or religion." It is to be presumed that the author of this resolution meant, not that the passports were issued to Americans on account of race or religion, but that they were refused by Russia on that account. If his aim was to make the resolutions as obnoxious to Russia as possible, he succeeded fairly well in his endeavor. The President has happily prevented this discourteous message from being officially communicated to the Russian Government. The Government will learn of it only through the press. Anticipating the action of Congress, the President, on the day following the passage of these resolutions by the House, gave a courteous notice to the Russian Government

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of the intention of the United States to abolish the treaty. "This ancient treaty," he said, "as is quite natural, is no longer fully responsive in various respects to the needs of the political and material conditions of the two countries, which grow constantly more important. The treaty has also given rise, from time to time, to certain controversies equally regretted by both Governments." In giving notice of the termination of the treaty for these reasons the President renewed the expression of the National friendship of America for Russia, and expressed the desire of the Government "to renew the effort to negotiate a modern treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation upon a basis more perfectly responsive to the interests of both Governments." The President's letter is as much better than the Sulzer resolutions in its spirit as it is in its English. The notification, as the President phrases it, can furnish no possible cause of offense to the Russian Government or the Russian people, and accomplishes all that the undiplomatic and discourteous language of the House resolutions could have accomplished. A Senate resolution, conceived in the spirit of the President's letter, has since passed both houses of Congress unanimously, and the long-continued controversy between this country and Russia has thus happily reached, if not the end, at least a temporary pause. That the treaty of 1832 is rendered obsolete by the changes which have taken place in the last seventy-five years, Senator Root showed conclusively in his remarkable speech in the Senate on December 19, and that fact alone furnishes entirely adequate reason for annulling it, not for the purpose of putting an end to all amicable relations between this country and Russia, but for the purpose of putting those relations on a more amicable basis by bringing about a better understanding between the two nations.

The history of this treaty, which was given somewhat fully in our issue of December 16, illustrates the reason why a *universal* treaty of arbitration is impossible in the present state of civilization; and also illustrates the principle upon which the limitations of a treaty of arbitration should be framed to be effectual. It is the duty of a Government to protect its citizens. A democratic country like America cannot, in furnishing such protection, recognize any distinctions of class, race, or religion. It must furnish to the Jew the same protection as to the Christian, to the priest the same protection as to the layman. Nor can it permanently continue to give passports to its citizens and have them ignored for reasons of race, class, or religion by the Government to which the passports are addressed. Whether the United States shall make distinctions between its citizens on the ground of race, class, or religion, or carry on foreign relations so as practically to make such distinctions, is not a question which it can leave other nations to decide for it. This question it must decide for itself. Thus this case furnishes a concrete illustration of the truth that a truly universal treaty of arbitration is impossible, not merely or mainly because public sentiment would not allow it to be carried out, but because public sentiment ought not to allow it to be carried out.

But, on the other hand, the question whether or not, by the treaty of 1832 between the United States and Russia, Russia agreed to accept any passports issued by the United States regardless of race, class, or religion, is a question of treaty interpretation. And this is distinctly a question which might well be arbitrated. A treaty is a contract between nations. When two parties to a contract disagree as to its meaning, the modern method, and the right and reasonable method, is to call upon some third intelligent, disinterested party to determine what it means. This is the course which, in our judgment, it would have been well for the United States to have pursued in the present case. Russia gives to the treaty of 1832 one interpretation; the United States gives to that treaty another interpretation. If the United States had asked Russia to submit this question to the Hague Tribunal, and Russia had consented, and the Hague Tribunal had decided that the Russian interpretation was correct, the United States could then have said, This is not the treaty which we intended to make, and we therefore give notice of its annulment. If the Hague Tribunal decided that the interpretation given by the United States was correct, Russia might have adopted the Hague Tribunal's interpretation and in the future accepted our passports. Or it could have given notice that this was not the treaty which she intended to make, and give notice of its annulment. Whichever interpretation the Hague Tribunal adopted, the treaty could have been annulled in a perfectly friendly fashion. It is now

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too late to take this action, but we believe that if, when the popular demand for the annulment of the treaty first began to gather headway, the Administration had proposed to Russia to leave the *interpretation of the treaty* to arbitration, it would have furnished the country and the world a valuable object-lesson of the uses of arbitration, and of the limitations within which arbitration is useful in the settlement of international controversies. As it is, the country should be grateful to the President for saving it from putting a perfectly needless affront upon a friendly Power by disregarding the recognized proprieties of diplomatic intercourse between nations.

A LITTLE CATECHISM ON MONEY[1]

What is money?

Money is a convenient token of exchange which has been invented by civilized man to facilitate commerce.

What is commerce?

Commerce is the exchange of life's commodities and necessities and of labor by individuals with individuals, communities with communities, and nations with nations.

What are the things which are exchanged in modern commerce?

The six essential things which are bought and sold, as we say, in modern commerce are food, water, clothing, shelter from inclemency of weather and climate, human intelligence or skill, and human strength or labor.

What is the use of money?

Money is of use only as it enables a man to exchange his labor or his intelligence for food, raiment, and shelter, or to exchange the food, raiment, or shelter which he has stored up and saved for the labor and intelligence of others, or to exchange his commodities for the commodities of others.

To perform this use properly, what qualities must money possess?

It must possess, first, the quality of being universally recognized as a good token of exchange, that is to say, a promise, which will not be repudiated, to pay some of the above-mentioned essentials of commerce; and, second, the quality of being as stable a standard of measure as possible.

Must money possess what is called intrinsic value?

Not necessarily. A piece of money is a token of a promise to pay useful commodities, useful labor, or useful skill. It is the *promise* to pay which must possess intrinsic value, not the token. The only service which "intrinsic value" in the piece of money itself can render is that sometimes it makes the promise to pay more universally recognized, and thus more binding.

Were the "greenbackers" of thirty years ago right, then, in their contention that the most scientific money is paper money?

Philosophically, yes; practically, no, because they could not, or did not, devise means to make the paper money token universally recognizable and reasonably stable as a measure of value.

What do you mean by "measure of value" as applied to money?

The measuring quality of money is the quality which enables men to determine, in commerce, how many loaves of bread one will give for a pair of shoes, or how many hours of labor one will give to a dentist for pulling a tooth. All commodities fluctuate in value in accordance with the needs or the desires of men, or with the variation in the action of forces of nature. A favorable season produces a great wheat crop, and the price of bread goes down; a coal strike comes, and the price of coal goes up. The dollar as a measure of value must therefore be based upon the commodity which fluctuates the least. In modern times gold is this commodity, and for this reason the most highly civilized nations use gold as the measure of the value of money. But gold itself constitutes only a fraction of the money used in the world, and its chief usefulness as money is because it is a measure and not because it makes surer the promise to pay.

Are the words currency and money interchangeable?

For all practical purposes, yes. The money tokens used in the United States consist of gold, silver, copper, and nickel coins; of National bank notes; of "greenbacks" or United States Government notes; and of all checks and negotiable personal notes. In a system of finance that works properly all these tokens are interchangeable, and are therefore all practically money; and all money that is current is currency.

Is there any other quality of money, or of currency that represents money in

[1] See Professor Seligman's article, "Everybody's Money," elsewhere in this issue.

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practical life, which has not been mentioned above?

Yes. Perhaps the most important quality of commercial money, the money which serves as a token of buying and selling, is that it should not only be stable in character or in its measure value, but that it should fluctuate in its volume. When all the farmers of the country are selling their wheat, they must receive money tokens which will enable them the next spring to obtain new seed and fertilizer. It is manifest that in an agricultural country like the United States there will be a great quantity of money tokens needed in the fall and spring when there are great numbers of commercial transactions taking place, and a less quantity of money tokens needed in midwinter and midsummer.

Why do we not, then, put our money away in drawers and safes in the winter and summer, and simply take it out when it is needed in the fall and spring?

Because idle money brings in no returns, while money which is at work increases itself. Under the present National banking system, through which the greatest part of our current money is supplied to the people, the banks, as a guarantee of their good faith, have to pay the Government for the right of issuing the currency. As they have to pay by the year, whether or not they use their currency in commercial loans to farmers and merchants, the natural tendency is to make speculative and undesirable loans at times when the legitimate commerce of the country does not need the money. This speculative use of money is one of the chief causes of financial panics.

How large can the volume of paper currency safely be made?

We can safely have in circulation at any one time paper currency equal in amount to the volume of the legitimate commercial transactions of the time. A promise to pay is said to be "as good as gold" when we know that the man who makes the promise is both determined and able to keep it. A paper dollar (which is simply a promise to pay) is "as good as gold" when the bank that issues it is determined and able (or is compelled and enabled by the Government) to pay it. The volume of paper dollars issued by a bank should be governed by two factors: first, the legitimate need of the merchants, farmers, and business men of the community for these paper dollars, and, second, the ability of the bank to make them worth a dollar in commodities or in labor.

Can the plan of the Monetary Commission be defined in a few words?

Briefly, the plan is to provide machinery by which a National bank can at any given time provide the community in which it does business with the currency or money which that community legitimately needs, coupled with a system of Government supervision so effective that the bank will be enabled to keep its promise to make the paper dollars good when presented for payment.

Is the plan of the Monetary Commission designed for the benefit of bankers?

Its chief and fundamental effect will be to benefit the farmers, merchants, and manufacturers, and so, of course, the consumers and householders, of the country. It will give more liberty and efficiency to the smaller banks, and less despotic power to the large banks of the great financial centers. The great banks of Wall Street are supporting it, however, because they know that the prosperity of the individual banker depends upon the general prosperity. Merchants and farmers and householders ought to support it for the same reason.

JOHN BIGELOW: GENTLEMAN

The death of Mr. Bigelow, at his home in New York, at the age of ninety-four, brings into clear light the fine lines of a character which has long been a synonym for personal integrity, wide interests, and that quality of distinction which rests not on achievement, however notable, but on charm of personality. Many great men have lacked it entirely, many men of average ability have possessed it. It was denied to Cromwell, it was given to Charles I; it was denied to Luther, it was given to Newman; in fiction it invests Don Quixote and Colonel Newcome with unfailing delight. A man may conquer the world without it; with it a man makes the world his friend. Mr. Bigelow had been a journalist, a man of public affairs, a diplomatist, a writer; he had the philosophic temperament, and the years had brought him the philosophic mind; there was a vein of mysticism in his nature, as his books on "Molinos" and "The Mystery of Sleep" show; his long industry bore fruit in a shelf of books of biography, reminiscence, history, legal discussion · but to those who

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knew him, his figure, bearing, and talk will always remain the most adequate expression of the man.

In a country in which the active virtues hold the first place, age does not always receive its due, and the ardor and vigor of youth count for more than the wisdom of years. But the outrush of energy is only the first stage in life, and there are finer qualities evoked by time than those which give the early stages their brilliant promise; there are a ripeness of tone, a mellowness of nature, a breadth of view, which are the fruit of the years that change the hardness of inexperienced judgment into charity and compassion, and deepen and enrich the mind that has waited and suffered and meditated. The years that bring the philosophic mind bring also faith, patience, and insight—the supreme qualities that come when a good man reaches the higher levels of life and gains the calmness and clearness of vision of those who look over a vast landscape.

Mr. Bigelow's career had been varied and deeply interesting, and he had touched life on many sides. Born on a farm at the base of the Catskills, he studied and practiced law, held very important editorial positions, traveled widely, as Minister to France rendered signal service to his country in the critical days that followed the Civil War, was an ardent tariff reformer and advocate of peace, held many conspicuous positions and received many honors. But the long story of his career became only a background against which his striking personality stood out with increasing clearness. Men saw in him the fulfillment and fruition of the education of life. The stages, methods, and processes of that education receded into the distance; what remained was the thoroughly trained man. The scaffoldings had all been removed; the building stood complete.

When Mr. Bigelow came to preside at the meetings of the Century Association, of which he was President, every man rose to his feet, and as he passed to his place one sometimes heard the whisper, "The first gentleman in America." For many years New York has honored him as he has honored it; not because he was great, but because for seventy active years the white light had rested on him and revealed no blot; because life had ripened in him the fine fruit of its mysterious education; because reverence waits on long-tried virtue and men stand uncovered in the presence of stainless and beautiful age.

THE RUSSIAN TREATY, ARBITRATION, AND HYPOCRISY

EDITORIAL BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT

I CORDIALLY approve the action taken by Congress in abrogating the Russian treaty, because men must vote and act on the situation as it actually confronts them; and in the actual event Congressmen had but two alternatives, namely, to abrogate the treaty, or to submit to the continuance of conditions which have become intolerable to our National self-respect, and which represent a continuing wrong, especially to American citizens of Jewish faith. I still believe that in so serious a matter it would have been well first to endeavor to secure a decision by the Hague Court on the interpretation of the existing treaty. I am confident that such a decision would, of necessity, have been in our favor; and, if so, it would have enabled Russia to retire from an untenable position with good grace and no loss of self-respect—an object that should always be held in view in dealing with any foreign nation with which at any time we have difficulties; while if the decision as to the interpretation of the clause in question had been adverse to us, we would then at once have abrogated the treaty, and have been clearly right in so doing. This was the position held by that distinguished diplomat Mr. Oscar Straus. But no movement had been made by either nation looking towards any other method of settling the matter than the one actually adopted. Congress was confronted by the

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simple fact that unless the treaty were abrogated conditions would remain as they now are; and, under the circumstances, Congress acted wisely and properly in declaring for the abrogation.

But this action was taken while the universal arbitration treaties are pending in the Senate. These treaties are avowedly championed as being of the kind we are to enter into with all nations, and as supplanting the existing arbitration treaties which we have with almost all nations, including Russia as well as England and France. These treaties, if ratified by the Senate unamended, will explicitly promise, will explicitly pledge the honor and good faith of the American Nation, to arbitrate precisely such questions as that which at this very moment we announce that we will not endeavor to arbitrate in the case of Russia. Under these circumstances, to ratify the general arbitration treaties would put the American people in an attitude of peculiarly contemptible hypocrisy, and would rightly expose us to the derision of all thinking mankind; for we should put ourselves in the position of making sweeping and insincere promises, impossible of performance, at the very time when by our own actions we showed that we would certainly not keep such promises, nor translate them into action. I believe that we can normally arbitrate the question of the interpretation of a treaty, even if only as the preliminary to adopting the very serious action of denouncing such treaty. But I do not believe that we can arbitrate, with the intention of abiding by the arbitration, such questions as treating all our citizens alike, without regard to their creed, in the matter of passports, or such questions as the Monroe Doctrine, the admission of Asiatic immigrants in mass, or the refusal by the States to pay bonds, or many other similar matters. In short, I do not believe that we can afford to arbitrate questions of vital interest and National honor, or questions of settled American governmental policy. Moreover, the attitude we are now taking as regards the abrogation of the Russian treaty shows beyond possibility of doubt that if we were so foolish or so timid as to agree, as an abstract matter, by general arbitration treaties, to arbitrate such questions, we should instantly repudiate the agreement whenever a concrete case arose in which any considerable number of our citizens took an active interest. Under such circumstances to proceed with the ratification of the general arbitration treaties unamended would be not merely a farce, but a farce played at the expense of our reputation for National good faith and sincerity. I believe most earnestly in peace, and in taking any step for arbitration which will genuinely tell in favor of peace; and I oppose these treaties because, if unamended, they would tell against peace and would put us as a nation in an attitude of unctuous and odious hypocrisy. Both the Lodge and the Root amendments should be adopted; the treaties would then cease to be detrimental to our National honor and interest, and (holding in view the abrogation of the Russian treaty) would be relieved from the present taint of evident insincerity—although even then they would represent a very small advance over our present position.

It is possible with sincerity and patriotism to favor the arbitration treaties (although I personally disagree with this view). It is possible with sincerity and patriotism to oppose the arbitration treaties. But it is neither sincere nor patriotic to make believe to support the principle of arbitration in general, and to try to get the country to commit itself to this principle, and at the same time to take part in, or to connive at, the repudiation by this country of the principle so loudly advocated, the very first moment that it is possible to reduce that principle to practice. In other words, it will put this country into a position both ridiculous and discreditable to pass the proposed general arbitration treaties at the same time that we denounce our general treaty with Russia.

The other day the lower house, with but one dissenting vote, passed a resolution in favor of the abrogation of the treaty. Among those who voted for this motion are many men who are against the unamended arbitration treaties. These men occupy a sincere and consistent position; it is the position with which I personally agree. The one dissenting vote was that cast by a gentleman who announced that he was in favor of the general arbitration treaties, and therefore could not consistently take a position wholly incompatible with favoring them. Although I do not agree with this gentleman, I feel that his position showed both courage and sincerity. But surely all men who think clearly must unqualifiedly condemn any man who advocates the general arbitration treaties with-

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out at the same time fearlessly showing his sincerity by denouncing the proposal to abrogate the Russian treaty without submitting its interpretation to arbitration. The Senate by vote has joined in abrogating the Russian treaty, and therefore it will act in a way to cast discredit upon the United States if it approves the arbitration treaties unamended. At the recent New York peace meeting in favor of the treaties (which ended in a riot) it was not creditable to the speakers for those treaties that they did not venture to declare themselves on the one practical issue, of the kind the treaties are expected to settle, which was actually before the people—that is, the matter of the abrogation of the Russian treaty without effort to get it authoritatively interpreted.

It cannot be too often repeated that these general arbitration treaties are nothing whatever but general promises. Their value lies wholly in the sincerity with which the promise is made and the fullness with which the promise is redeemed. I do not believe in making these promises, because I think that we are promising too much, and because, moreover, I fully believe that, as our action in abrogating the Russian treaty conclusively shows, in actual practice we would not keep the promise. To advocate the arbitration treaties, while failing to oppose the movement for denouncing the Russian treaty, is equivalent to open and cynical confession that as a people we do not intend to keep our promises, that we have no regard for the good faith of the Nation, that we are willing to make improperly sweeping promises to please one set of men and at the same time scandalously to break these promises to please another set of men.

These treaties are drawn in such sweeping and vague general terms, especially in the use of the word "justiciable," that they might, in any concrete case, be held to mean anything or nothing, and to encourage just the kind of double-dealing and bad faith which is now being shown. One thing is certain: if the question of the interpretation of a treaty is not "justiciable," then there never can any question arise which is justiciable. If the action taken in abrogating the Russian treaty is not utter and complete violation of the whole spirit and purpose of the proposed arbitration treaties, then the latter are not worth the paper on which they are written. I believe that we are right in abrogating the Russian treaty, just because I also believe that the general arbitration treaties are not worth the paper on which they are written. The point upon which I insist is that this Nation should behave without hypocrisy and with straightforward sincerity in its international relations; that it should not lie, nor make promises which it would not keep. I do not question the honesty and sincerity of the many good people who, without sufficient thought, and in response to a vague general sentiment in favor of both peace and justice which fails to realize that sometimes peace can be obtained only at the expense of justice, have advocated both the universal arbitration treaties and the abrogation of the Russian treaty. But when the Nation, through its Government, acts, it cannot plead the excuse of lack of thought. If as a people our action is insincere and lacking in straightforwardness, then, when this action has been officially taken, we cannot escape the charge of hypocrisy when later we fail to live up to our promises. It is arrant hypocrisy for this Nation to support the unamended arbitration treaties at the same time that we abrogate the Russian treaty, and to do so is to put this Nation in a thoroughly false and discreditable attitude. Hypocrisy is as revolting in a nation as in a man; and, in the long run, I do not believe that it pays either man or nation.

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AN OFFICIAL DENIAL

A FALSEHOOD, once started on its journey from mouth to mouth and from page to page, has a good chance for a long life; and the more it involves persons of high station, the more likely it is to have a prosperous career. Such a falsehood was that which was circulated in the Presidential campaign of 1904 to the effect that Mr. Roosevelt, then President and candidate for another Presidential term, had requested from Mr. E. H. Harriman a large campaign contribution to further his own election. This falsehood was circulated in various garbs, and it was even embellished with the statement that involved in this request was a bargain whereby certain special interests would be protected and served. Although it has been repeatedly met by categorical denials, it is still on its journey. The fact, however, that seven years ago campaign contributions were regarded as confidential has interfered with the issuance of any statement by the party officials responsible for the handling of campaign funds in that year. But the attitude of the public and of party officials toward campaign contributions has now changed, and the change in attitude is embodied in law. Mr. Sheldon, who in 1904 was Assistant Treasurer, and is now the late Mr. Bliss's successor as Treasurer of the Republican National Committee, is therefore acting with perfect propriety and does not lay himself open to criticism in writing a letter to Mr. Roosevelt officially stating the facts and denying the falsehood, and is thoroughly justified in giving, on his own initiative, this letter and the reply from Mr. Roosevelt to the press. We print his letter and Mr. Roosevelt's reply, in order that our readers may be able to refer to number and page of The Outlook when they wish in their categorical denial of this falsehood to substantiate that denial by documentary evidence. The letters referred to are as follows:

December 15, 1911.

Hon. Theodore Roosevelt, Oyster Bay:

Dear Mr. Roosevelt—Ever since the election of 1904 the story has been continuously published and never denied, except by you, that you asked Mr. E. H. Harriman to contribute money to aid in your election, and that he thereupon raised or contributed $250,000 to the National Committee fund. Knowing this to be untrue, I several times suggested to my superior officer, Mr. C. N. Bliss, then Treasurer of the National Committee, that the facts in the case be plainly stated. Mr. Bliss always believed that the books and accounts of the National Committee were private, and, although always carried on by him with the highest sense of integrity and honor, he never, like all of his contemporaries, would consent to any publicity. This feeling has been changed in the past few years by the laws requiring full publicity in elections. It seems, therefore, to me that now, in justice to you, the facts in the case ought to be known.

Every one knew and conceded that in the election of 1904 you would carry the State of New York by a large plurality, but it was generally believed that Mr. Higgins would be defeated. The Democrats centered their efforts on the election of their candidate for Governor. About a week before the election Mr. Odell, then Chairman of the New York State Committee, came to Mr. Bliss and told him that unless he had $250,000 from the National Committee the State ticket would be defeated. Mr. Bliss told Chairman Odell that he had no money to give, but would see what could be done. He visited Mr. E. H. Harriman at his office and explained to him the urgency of the situation as told by Mr. Odell.

Mr. Harriman thereupon called up several of his friends on the telephone, and next day handed Mr. Bliss $160,000. Mr. Bliss himself raised $80,000. This sum of $240,000 was handed directly to Chairman Odell, and never in any way went into the treasury of the National Committee, which had in charge the Presidential election. I have personal knowledge of all the within-mentioned facts.

Very truly yours,
(Signed) GEORGE R. SHELDON,
Treasurer Republican National Committee.

The Outlook, 287 Fourth Avenue, New York.
Office of Theodore Roosevelt.

December 19, 1911.

Mr. George R. Sheldon,
62 Cedar Street, New York City:

Dear Mr. Sheldon—I thank you for your letter, and I am glad that it was written. There is little for me to add to what you have said. I never directly or indirectly, in any shape, way, or form, asked Mr. Harriman, or anybody else, to contribute a dollar to aid in my election. Moreover, on the only occasion on which Mr. Harriman ever spoke to me on the subject at all, he did so of his own initiative; and so far from there being any request from me to him, he made to me the request that I would aid him in getting the National Committee to contribute some of its funds for the campaign expenses of Mr. Higgins, the candidate for Governor in New York State.

He at the time stated to me that my own election was assured, that the election of Mr. Higgins, in which he was especially interested, was doubtful, and that he earnestly hoped that the National Committee would divert some of its funds from the National to the State campaign, where the need was great and where he believed the election of Mr. Higgins to be in jeopardy. As shown in your letter, this was precisely what the National Committee did.

Very truly yours,
(Signed) THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

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THE ASSURANCE OF IMMORTALITY

BY GEORGE HODGES

THE FIRST OF A SERIES OF ARTICLES ON PERSONAL IMMORTALITY. OTHER CONTRIBUTORS TO THE SERIES WILL BE HENRY S. PRITCHETT, PRESIDENT OF THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION, W. T. GRENFELL, JAMES M. WHITON, AND LYMAN ABBOTT

AS the years go by, the question of the life to come grows increasingly importunate. Gradually we perceive that we move in a marching procession whose forward ranks are passing out of our sight over the top of the hill. Where do they go? and where, in our turn, shall we go? We must ask; we cannot help it.

One who is engaged in the work of the ministry is compelled to find articulate answers to this question. He is not able to evade the matter. He cannot leave it in the vagueness of mere hope or foreboding. It is a part of his common occupation to talk with persons in bereavement, and they say, What do you think, or believe, or know about this universal human tragedy? It also comes into the course of his annual round of duty to preach an Easter sermon. He knows that at that season his people expect him to speak of that which lies on the other side of death. He must gather together his own ideas or convictions, as they take shape in his experience and in his study and reflection, and state them as definitely as he can. After he has done this for thirty years, the quotations from philosophers and scientists, and even from Fathers and Apostles, are superseded by the statements of personal faith. He began with quotations, and told what the wise men said. But what he believes now is the wisdom of ancients and moderns tested, rejected, and selected by his own experience, become a part of himself, and proclaimed to others because it has honestly appealed to him. This, he says, I believe, because, for such and such good reasons, I believe it. Thus he arrives at an assurance of immortality.

The only reasonable argument against the immortality of the soul is the death of the body. The body dies, and, so far as we can see, all individual existence ceases. There is no response. There is no manifestation of continued life. Some students of psychical conditions encourage us to believe that they may eventually bring light into this darkness, but such light as they have brought thus far is not enough to see by. The ordinary evidence of our senses peremptorily denies the doctrine of the immortality of man.

To this denial an obvious reply is that death is one of the oldest of all facts. From the beginning of time death has confronted life. So far as the death of the body constitutes an argument against the immortality of the soul, it was as valid a contradiction a hundred thousand years ago. But it has never prevailed. The argument is plain enough, and appeals to the reason of every man, but it has never been effective. It comes, indeed, with crushing weight in the moment of affliction. For many a grieving heart it turns the earth and sky alike into a horror of great darkness. But the grieving heart recovers. Nothing happens to show that the argument of death is in any way fallacious. There it is, and we cannot gainsay it. But we do gainsay it. The primitive man, contemporary with the glaciers, buries in the grave of his dead the symbols of his faith in immortality. Confronting the unanswerable facts, he cries, "My friend is dead, but he shall live again!" And this cry of hope, of confidence, and of victory has been repeated every day since life and death began. It is evident that something is the matter with an argument which is at the same time so plain and yet so everlastingly unconvincing.

The psychologists, in their examination of

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the argument, find several things the matter with it.

It is criticised by Professor Royce on the ground that it takes no account of the fact of individuality. Among the many uncertainties of our life one thing is absolutely sure, and that is that we are ourselves. I am myself and nobody else. Nobody in the world can possibly be so like me as to be I. My individuality is therefore independent of all the qualities of matter which I possess in common with my neighbors. There is resident in me that which mysteriously and indefinably differences me from all the world. My body, then, may perish without affecting the continued existence of my self.

The argument is criticised also by Professor James on the ground that it confuses the transmissive with the productive function of the brain. The point of the common difficulty is the assertion that there can be no thought without a brain. This is apparently true when we set it alongside of the proposition that there can be no steam without fire and water, for fire and water produce steam. But it is absurd when we set it alongside of the proposition that there can be no light without a prism. The function of a prism is not to originate light but to transmit it. The prism may be broken into a thousand pieces, but the light remains. Thus our conscious life is associated with the activity of our brain, as the world outside our room is associated with the window. The brain is the window through which we look into the world of reality. It is our present medium of communication between ourself within and the world without. It is a reasonable belief that at death, when this medium of communication is disused, some other takes its place. The window opens and out we go into a new and better sight of the real world, into a new and more intimate relation with it. The fact that there is no more window does not signify the abolition either of the world or of ourself; it signifies only some other point of view.

These things I say over to myself, and they give me great satisfaction. They clear the way. Until they became plain, there lurked behind all the philosophies and all the Scriptures an intrusive and disquieting doubt. It was possible to accede to the great affirmative argument and to assent to the supreme revealing authority, and yet to remain uneasily of the opinion of the frank auditor who said, "I guess that is all true, but I don't more than half believe it." I did more than half believe it; but the fact of death, obstinate and unescapable, and, as it seemed, unanswerable, blocked the road of faith. A great many people must be in that position, waiting for an interpretation of death.

Death being thus interpreted, and shown to be consistent with a life to come, argument and authority have the right of way.

The convincing argument, as it appears to me, stands stoutly on two feet. One proposition is that man expects to live; the other proposition is that man is too valuable to die. Man is an animal that expects to live forever. This is one of the human qualities, a permanent factor in any accurate description of man. Now a universal human quality is the assurance of a universal reality; or else God has put us to confusion. If man is made expecting a life which goes on after death, and then at death dies like a weed, we are the playthings of malignant forces. On the contrary, a universal spiritual fact is like a universal physical fact: it is an evidence of a general law of being.

Also, man has been too long in growing, through the ages of the universe, to make only a brief beginning of an endless life, and then die. Man is of too much value to be outlived by the chairs and tables of his house, or even by the trees and hills. In the first enthusiasm of the scientific discoveries of the last half-century, matter and force seemed for the moment to be the only realities in the world. Men who did not believe in the immortality of the soul believed in the immortality of the body. Atoms are indestructible; they pass perhaps into new forms and combinations, but they continue. Oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, are everlasting. That assertion was not made of faith and reverence and self-sacrifice and affection; it was not made concerning the mind or the soul, or the personality therein residing. We have recovered now from that first misleading valuation. We perceive that a chemist may possibly care more for his chemicals than he does for his children, but we do not now accept that as a parable of the care of God. Spiritual realities must be most precious to him, as they are, at our best, to us. And these realities have no meaning apart from persons. Justice and truth and love are attributes of personality. They are not satisfied by any immortality of "lasting influence," or by any merging of the soul of man

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into the "soul of the universe." They demand conscious individual existence.

But argument needs the confirmation of authority. Argument is essentially aristocratic. It appeals only to such as are able, by education or by natural gifts, to understand it. And even to such as understand and receive it, it lacks finality. That is, we have an uncomfortable feeling that some other process of reasoning, taking some new facts into account or bringing the old facts into new combinations, may lead to a different conclusion. Then authority comes to our assistance. For the heart of authority in religion is the uncommon experience of uncommon people. There are persons who are peculiarly sensitive to the phenomena of the spirit, as others are sensitive to the phenomena of nature, or to music or to art. They see more than their neighbors. The materials with which they deal are common to us all, but they handle them with a conviction and a result which are beyond our power. Somehow they come into relation with divine truth at first hand. And what they say has convincing influence with us for that reason. Sometimes the men are uncommon men; such as St. Paul, with his direct perception of the spiritual body. Sometimes the uncommonness is in their experience; as in the case of those disciples who with their own eyes saw the risen Lord.

This experience is the explanation of Christian history. It made Christianity possible and actual. It took the assertion of the immortality of man out of the vagueness of common expectation and out of the uncertainty of argument, and confirmed it by the immediate perception of the fact. Thus simple people, perplexed by the difficult conditions of life and by the differences in the interpretation of them, and dismayed by the fact of death, were able to say, "I do not know, but others are wiser than I, and I am content to take their word. They see stars where I see only gray cloud, but I believe that the stars are there because I believe them." Thus Christianity came as good news, as the proclamation of a gospel, as the enriching of the common experience of common people by the uncommon experience of uncommon people. It made a democratic appeal. The Christians said concerning Jesus Christ, "Thou hast the words of eternal life." They were convinced of the immortality of man because Christ asserted it, and by his resurrection confirmed it. When he said, "Because I live, ye shall live also," they perceived in his declaration a solid ground of confidence.

The longer I live, and the better acquainted I become with the processes of reasoning in my own mind and in books, the more I find myself disposed to be satisfied with this authority. Of course people are different. There are alert and eager minds, fond of adventure and following great quests, who are not content with anybody's word. Happily so. But there must be a quiet majority for whom peace and content are established by this more humble method. They like to repeat the great words, "I am the resurrection and the life: he that believeth in me, though he were dead, yet shall he live: and whosoever liveth and believeth in me shall never die." And they are not troubled because the saying is quoted from that Fourth Gospel about which the critics make disquieting remarks, for they know that this personal consciousness of immortality enters into all the Gospels.

As for the manner of life in that other world, it lies beyond not only our knowledge but our imagination. Where it is, and how it is, we may not even guess. It may be related to our present experience as the life of the sea is related to the life of the land. There they are, side by side; on the one hand is the life whose atmosphere is the sea; on the other hand, our life of air and sky, of hills and stars, of books and cities, touching the sea, but altogether different from it. So the other world may surround this, hidden from us because our small array of senses, numbered on the fingers of one hand, do not bring us into conscious relation with it.

At the same time such knowledge of this world as we possess discloses everywhere the universal fact of growth. We infer, therefore, that our future will proceed out of our present, as the plant proceeds from its beginnings in the soil, being very different and yet akin. Thus heaven and hell are expressions of the saying, "Whatsoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap." A notable instance of the constant progress of theology is the general change of mind regarding future punishment. It has come about within a single generation. The heresy of thirty years ago is our present orthodoxy. Punishment, indeed, remains both inevitable and everlasting; but its endurance is bound up, not with the unending pain of any individual, but with the necessary consequence of sin. Whenever there is sin, to all eternity there will be pun-

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ishment; but that this divine remedy should be forever ineffective, that the will and love of God should be forever defeated, becomes unthinkable. This change of mind has been brought about largely by the application to theology of the supreme, determining doctrine of the fatherhood of God. That is our test of truth. Nothing is true which contradicts it.

Believing that the future grows from the present, we believe that no experience here, no increase of knowledge or of grace, is lost. Somehow it all goes on into the world to come. And the social life with which it is essentially connected must somehow continue. The confidence of Socrates in the Apology and the vision of St. John in the Revelation must be justified in a celestial society of saints and sages and of our congenial friends.

ALYOSHA THE POT

BY LEO TOLSTOY[1]

ALYOSHA was the younger brother. He was called the Pot because his mother had once sent him with a pot of milk to the Deacon's wife and he had stumbled against something and broken it. His mother had beaten him, and the children had teased him. Since then he was nicknamed the Pot. Alyosha was a tiny, thin little fellow with ears like wings and a huge nose. "Alyosha has a nose that looks like a dog on a hill!" the children used to call after him. Alyosha went to the village school, but was not good at lessons; besides, there was so little time to learn. His elder brother was in town, working for a merchant, so Alyosha had to help his father from a very early age. When he was no more than six, he used to go out with the girls to watch the cows and sheep in the pasture, and a little later he looked after the horses by day and by night. And with twelve years he had already begun to plow and to drive the cart. The skill was there, though the strength was not. He was always cheerful. Whenever the children made fun of him, he would either laugh or be silent. When his father scolded him, he would stand mute and listen attentively, and as soon as the scolding was over would smile and go on with his work. Alyosha was nineteen when his brother was taken as a soldier. So his father placed him with the merchant as a yard porter. He was given his brother's old boots, his father's old coat and cap, and was taken to town. Alyosha was delighted with his clothes, but the merchant was not impressed by his appearance.

"I thought you would bring me a man in Simeon's place," he said, scanning Alyosha, "and you've brought me *this!* What's the good of him?"

"He can do everything; look after horses and drive. He's a good one to work. He looks rather thin, but he's tough enough. And he's very willing."

"He looks it. All right; we'll see what we can do with him."

So Alyosha remained at the merchant's.

The family was not a large one. It consisted of the merchant's wife; her old mother; a married son of meager education, who was in his father's business; another son, a learned one, who had finished school and entered the University, but had been expelled, so was living at home; and a daughter, who still went to school.

They did not take to Alyosha at first. He was uncouth, badly dressed, and had no manners, but they soon got used to him. Alyosha worked even better than his brother had done; he was very willing. They sent him on all sorts of errands, but he did everything quickly and readily, going from one task to another without stopping. And so here, just as at home, all the work was put upon his shoulders. The more he did, the more he was given to do. His mistress, her old mother, the son, the daughter, the clerk, and the cook—all ordered him about, sent him from one place to another.

"Alyosha, do this! Alyosha, do that! What! have you forgotten, Alyosha? Mind

[1] This story, not before published, has been translated by F. Stepniak and R. Townsend.

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you don't forget, Alyosha!" was heard from morning till night. And Alyosha ran here, looked after this and that, forgot nothing, found time for everything, and was always cheerful.

His brother's old boots were soon worn out, and his master scolded him for going about in tatters with his toes sticking out. He ordered another pair to be bought for him at the market. Alyosha was delighted with his new boots, but he was angry with his feet when they ached at the end of the day after so much running about. And then he was afraid that his father would be annoyed, when he came to town for his wages, to find that his master had deducted the cost of the boots.

In the winter Alyosha used to get up before daybreak. He would chop the wood, sweep the yard, feed the cows and horses, light the stoves, clean the boots, prepare the samovars and polish them afterwards; or the clerk would get him to bring up the goods; or the cook would set him to knead the bread and clean the saucepans. Then he was sent to town on various errands, or to bring the daughter home from school, or to get some olive oil for the old mother. "Why the devil have you been so long?" first one, then another would say to him. Why should they go? Alyosha can go. "Alyosha! Alyosha!" And Alyosha ran here and there. He breakfasted in snatches while he was working, and rarely managed to get his dinner at the proper hour. The cook used to scold him for being late, but she was sorry for him, all the same, and would keep something hot for his dinner and supper.

At holiday times there was more work than ever, but Alyosha liked holidays, because everybody gave him a tip. Not much, certainly, but it would amount up to about sixty kopeks—his very own money. For Alyosha never set eyes on his wages. His father used to come and take them from the merchant, and only scold Alyosha for wearing out his boots.

When he had saved up two rubles, by the advice of the cook, he bought himself a red knitted jacket, and was so happy when he put it on that he couldn't close his mouth for joy. Alyosha was not talkative; when he spoke at all, he spoke abruptly, with his head turned away. When told to do anything, or asked if he could do it, he would say yes without the smallest hesitation, and set to work at once.

Alyosha did not know any prayer; he had forgotten what his mother had taught him. But he prayed, just the same, every morning and every evening, prayed with his hands, crossing himself.

He lived like this for about a year and a half, and toward the end of the second year a most startling thing happened to him. He discovered one day, to his great surprise, that, in addition to the relation of usefulness existing between people, there was also another, a peculiar relation of quite a different character. Instead of a man being wanted to clean boots and go on errands and harness horses, he is wanted to be of no service at all, but another being wants to serve him and pet him. And suddenly Alyosha was that man.

He made this discovery through the cook, Ustinia. She was young, had no parents, and worked as hard as Alyosha. He felt, for the first time in his life, that he, not his services, but he himself, was necessary to another human being. When his mother used to be sorry for him, he had taken no notice of her. It had seemed to him quite natural, as though he were feeling sorry for himself. But here was Ustinia, a perfect stranger, and sorry for him. She would save him some hot porridge and sit watching him, her chin propped on her bare arm with the sleeve rolled up, while he was eating it. When he looked at her, she would begin to laugh, and he would laugh too.

This was such a new, strange thing to him that it frightened Alyosha. He feared that it might interfere with his work. But he was pleased, nevertheless, and when he glanced at the trousers that Ustinia had mended for him, he would shake his head and smile. He would often think of her while at work or when running on errands. "A fine girl, Ustinia!" he sometimes exclaimed.

Ustinia used to help him whenever she could, and he helped her. She told him all about her life; how she had lost her parents; how her aunt had taken her in and found a place for her in the town; how the merchant's son had tried to take liberties with her, and how she had rebuffed him. She liked to talk, and Alyosha liked to listen to her. He had heard that peasants who came up to work in the towns frequently got married to servant girls. On one occasion she asked him if his parents intended marrying him soon. He said that he did not know;

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that he did not want to marry any of the village girls.

"Have you taken a fancy to some one, then?"

"I would marry you, if you'd be willing."

"Get along with you! Alyosha the Pot, but you've found your tongue, haven't you?" she exclaimed, slapping him on the back with a towel she held in her hand. "Why shouldn't I?"

At Shrovetide Alyosha's father came to town for his wages. It had come to the ears of the merchant's wife that Alyosha wanted to marry Ustinia, and she disapproved of it. "What will be the use of her with a baby?" she thought, and informed her husband.

The merchant gave the old man Alyosha's wages.

"How is my lad getting on?" he asked. "I told you he was willing."

"That's all right as far as it goes; but he's taken some sort of nonsense into his head. He wants to marry our cook. Now I don't approve of married servants. We won't have them in the house."

"Well, now, who would have thought the fool would think of such a thing?" the old man exclaimed. "But don't you worry. I'll soon settle that."

He went into the kitchen and sat down at the table, waiting for his son. Alyosha was out on an errand, and came back breathless.

"I thought you had some sense in you, but what's this you've taken into your head?" his father began.

"I? Nothing."

"How nothing? They tell me you want to get married. You shall get married when the time comes. I'll find you a decent wife, not some town hussy."

His father talked and talked, while Alyosha stood still and sighed. When his father had quite finished, Alyosha smiled.

"All right. I'll drop it."

"Now that's what I call sense."

When he was left alone with Ustinia, he told her what his father had said. (She had listened at the door.)

"It's no good, it can't come off. Did you hear? He was angry—won't have it at any price."

Ustinia cried into her apron.

Alyosha shook his head.

"What's to be done? We must do as we're told."

"Well, are you going to give up that nonsense as your father told you?" his mistress asked, as he was putting up the shutters in the evening.

"To be sure we are," Alyosha replied, with a smile, and burst into tears.

From that day Alyosha went about his work as usual and no longer talked to Ustinia about their getting married. One day in Lent the clerk told him to clear the snow from the roof. Alyosha climbed on to the roof and swept away all the snow, and while he was still raking out some frozen lumps from the gutter his foot slipped and he fell over. Unfortunately, he did not fall on the snow, but on a piece of iron over the door. Ustinia came running up, together with the merchant's daughter.

"Have you hurt yourself, Alyosha?"

"Ah, no; it's nothing."

But he could not raise himself when he tried to, and began to smile.

He was taken into the lodge. The doctor arrived, examined him, and asked where he felt the pain.

"I feel it all over," he said. "But it doesn't matter. I'm only afraid master will be annoyed. Father ought to be told."

Alyosha lay in bed for two days, and on the third day they sent for the priest.

"Are you really going to die?" Ustinia asked.

"Of course I am. You can't go on living forever. You must go when the time comes." Alyosha spoke rapidly as usual. "Thank you, Ustinia. You've been very good to me. What a lucky thing they didn't let us marry! Where should we have been now? It's much better as it is."

When the priest came, he prayed with his hands and with his heart. "As it is good here when you obey and do no harm to others, so it will be there," was the thought within it.

He spoke very little; he only said he was thirsty, and he seemed full of wonder at something.

He wondered, stretched himself, and died.

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EVERYBODY'S MONEY

WHAT IT IS; WHAT IT SHOULD BE

BY EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN, LL.D.

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[The National Monetary Commission, to which Professor Seligman refers in the following article, was created in 1908, by Congress, to collect data and make recommendations for a reform of National banking and currency systems. The Commission consists of members of the United States Senate and House of Representatives. The Chairman of the Commission is the Hon. Nelson W. Aldrich, at the time of his appointment Senator from Rhode Island. The Vice-Chairman is the Hon. Edward B. Vreeland, ex-Representative from New York, and the author of the well-known Vreeland Bill. The other members are Secretary of State Knox, ex-Senator Burrows, of Michigan, ex-Senator Hale, of Maine, ex-Senator Teller, of Colorado, ex-Senator Money, of Mississippi, ex-Senator Flint, of California, ex-Senator Taliaferro, of Florida, Senator Burton, of Ohio, and Senator Bailey, of Texas. The House of Representatives' side of the Commission is made up of Messrs. Weeks, of Massachusetts, Bonynge, of Colorado, Padgett, of Tennessee, Burgess, of Texas, Pujo, of Louisiana, and Prince, of Illinois. The Commission is thus a distinctly Congressional affair. It has engaged in a careful study of the various monetary systems of America and Europe, and in that effort has had the valued assistance of Dr. A. Piatt Andrew, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, who has been made officially "Assistant to the National Monetary Commission." On another page will be found an editorial on this subject, in the form of a "little catechism," which may very properly be read by the non-technical reader as a preparation for Professor Seligman's scientific and authoritative paper.—THE EDITORS.]

IN attempting to explain the fundamental questions involved in the report of the National Monetary Commission, or rather in the plan suggested by Senator Aldrich to the Commission, it seems best to take up four points:

I. Why should the public be interested in the report?

II. What are the chief defects of the present system?

III. In what way does the new plan propose to remove these defects?

IV. What will probably be the results of the scheme if put into operation?

I. Why Should the Public be Interested?

The objects of every currency and banking system are twofold: first, to provide a satisfactory supply of money; and, second, to furnish adequate credit facilities to business enterprise. Money is the universal medium of exchange, and every individual who uses money is interested in having a safe, suitable, and uniform currency. It is the foundation upon which modern economic life rests.

Less direct, but none the less important, is the interest of every one in the furnishing of proper credit facilities to business. Modern business is based, to a very large extent, on credit, and any obstacle placed in the way of borrowing on the part of the solvent business man is therefore a check to enterprise. Not only the merchant, however, but every other class is concerned in the maintenance of adequate credit facilities. The country's crops annually require vast sums to move them to the consumer, perhaps thousands of miles away. An inadequate credit system will, to the extent that it is inadequate, narrow the market and reduce farmers' profits. Again, the laborers are almost more interested in the steadiness of employment than in the rate of wages; for high wages at half-time are illusory. Yet unsatisfactory credit conditions are largely responsible for the periodical embarrassment and shutting down of industrial plants. Thus the prosperity of every class in the community is more or less directly bound up with an adequate currency and banking system.

To provide such a system is the work partly of government, partly of private initiative. Upon the government devolves the primary obligation to furnish a satisfactory money supply, so far as this consists of coin; but in the case of paper currency banks are needed to provide the elastic and flexible element adapted to the rapidly changing needs of the business world. A proper system of bank notes is everywhere regarded as an eminently desirable adjunct to a country's coinage. In the money supply, therefore, the government is primary, the banks secondary. On the other hand, to the modern

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business man credit facilities are more important than actual money. When a merchant borrows, he rarely takes the loan in cash. Although the total currency of the United States—that is, coin, Government paper money, and National bank notes—is more than four thousand millions, the loans and discounts of our banks are several times that sum. In the case of credit facilities, therefore, the banks are of primary importance, while the influence of the Government is seen chiefly in the supervision that is exercised over the banks in the public interest.

Several years ago the great controversy in this country revolved about the question of money—that is, primarily, coin or government money. To-day the discussion centers around the problem of credit—that is, bank facilities and bank currency. The present problem, although arousing less heated political controversy, is scarcely inferior in importance to the former. The question of coinage and of the money standard has been satisfactorily settled. The question of credit remains to be adjusted.

II. The Defects of the Present System

The existing National bank system is a product of the Civil War. Its twofold object was, first, to provide a safe and uniform currency, and, second, to make a market for the Government bonds on which the war was financed. At the outbreak of the war the currency consisted of notes of thousands of local banks in all degrees of goodness and badness—especially the latter. Under the new system, the State bank notes were taxed out of existence, and the right of note issue devolved upon the National banks. As security for these notes the banks were compelled to invest in Government bonds. Thus a market was found for the bonds and absolute safety was secured for the new and uniform National currency.

With the lapse of time, however, the defects of this system have become increasingly apparent. In the first place, other elements than safety have come into the foreground; and in the second place, the system itself is no longer really safe.

Safety is indeed indispensable, but flexibility and elasticity are no less so. In a huge country like ours, currency needs are exceedingly fluctuating. At crop times hundreds of millions are required, at other times such a volume of bank notes is unnecessary. Any system which is to fit business needs must be capable of instant expansion and contraction. A note issue based upon the deposit of Government bonds, however, is governed more by fluctuations in the price of the bonds and by the necessities of the Government than by the changing needs of the business community. Moreover, under our system there is even a legal obstacle to prompt contraction of bank note issues—a point no less important than their expansion. Both safety and flexibility are needed. Foreign systems attain both ends. Our system sacrifices flexibility for safety.

But, in the second place, our system no longer really provides safety. Safety in modern times means safety not only to the note-holder, but to the business man. The test of the safety of a banking system comes in times of trouble. We are not concerned with safety when there is no danger. Trouble in the business world is periodic, and assumes the form of commercial crises and financial panics. With the deeper causes of these phenomena we have no occasion to deal here. But, taking these periodical oscillations for granted, a banking system discloses its soundness, not only when the banks are enabled to withstand a run, but also and especially when the confidence in their security is so great as to prevent a run. In times of stress a sound bank must be prepared to come to the aid of the business community, and not to withhold its credit. The European banking systems have, time and time again, helped to minimize the evils of crises, whereas the American banks have woefully failed. The experience of 1907, which would have been impossible under a well-regulated system, is still fresh in our minds. A banking system is not safe when it breaks down under the first strain. When bank notes so far exceeded deposits as they did fifty years ago, it might have been excusable to think that the safety of the note-holder meant the safety of the business community; but nowadays the test of safety has been shifted from notes to deposits, and our system provides no safety for the latter. In fact, at present our system no longer insures safety even to the note-holder. Ultimately, indeed, the deposited bonds may be sold and the note-holder get his money back; but when, as in the panic of 1907, note-holders cannot secure cash except at a considerable discount, safety can no longer be predicated of our system.

In short, to secure safety we sacrificed

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flexibility; and now we have neither the one nor the other.

Another fundamental evil of our present system is its undue decentralization. Every bank is supposed to stand on its own feet, entirely separate from every other bank. In time of trouble, however, these feet are found to be entirely too slender to support the body. Decentralization is the result of a laudable desire to afford local facilities, but the kind of decentralization that we have prevents local facilities. In our political government we have both centralization and decentralization. Certain functions are relegated to the Federal Government because they are unfit for State or local administration. The centralization involved in the army, the post-office, or the control of inter-State commerce makes possible very effective decentralization in other matters. So in a good banking system, in order to secure decentralization of facilities we need centralization of reserves. As Mr. Paul M. Warburg has so tellingly put it, our present system is comparable to a method of fire prevention which relies on a few water-pails in each house, instead of collecting the same quantity of water into a huge reservoir, with mains to each street. When the fire breaks out—that is, when the crisis occurs—the bank is obliged to depend upon the pails rather than the reservoir. Centralization of reserves would make possible the real decentralization of facilities.

As a matter of fact, however, under our present system we already have a virtual, though illusory, centralization of reserves. The banks outside of our large cities may keep a large part of their reserves on deposit in the so-called central reserve cities—practically in New York. The reserves of the whole country are therefore loaned on call by the New York banks for stock exchange purposes. Not only do the immense fluctuations in the amount of "call money" produce the most violent changes in discount rates—utterly unknown elsewhere in the world—but the entirely impossible burden of caring for the safety of a host of country correspondents is imposed upon the individual New York banks. Accordingly, in times of stress these banks have attempted to unite their reserves through the Clearing-House Associations and to extend facilities and issue notes in an extra-legal, and even perhaps illegal, manner.

Incidentally many other shortcomings of our present system have developed. With excessive decentralization, it becomes difficult to transfer currency or bank facilities from section to section. This is the only country of the world where the rates for domestic exchange are so inordinately high. Furthermore, our method of handling commercial paper has engendered several additional shortcomings. If a man desires to borrow money anywhere else in the world, he will sell to a bank his own three months' bill drawn on some private banker willing to extend him credit. Or, if he is a merchant who has sold goods, he will draw on his customer, get his banker to indorse the bill or draft, and sell it to the bank in the same way. The bank which purchases this paper can always dispose of it to some one, usually by having it rediscounted by one of the large central banks. If "money tightens" in any country, the central banks in the other countries increase their investments in bills of exchange in the country where the rate goes up, and, by purchasing the short-time paper, tend to prevent the export of specie, sending bills of exchange instead. In the United States, on the other hand, when a man borrows money from a bank, the latter keeps the note until it falls due. It becomes a dead, or illiquid, asset. Since the American banks do not invest their funds in the bill market, they loan on call in the stock market, which thus attracts the surplus funds of the entire country and produces all the perturbations to which we have alluded. In this way, also, the American banks are prevented from entering the international market and participating in the profits of international finance.

Thus from every point of view our present system is lame and halting. It does not provide elasticity; it does not insure safety; it restricts the activity of our banks, whether large or small; and it retards the prosperity of the farmer, the laborer, and the general public. It is an archaic and inadequate system, unfitted to modern needs.

III. The New Scheme

It is to overcome these difficulties and dangers that the new plan has been framed. It possesses four principal features:

1. Centralization of reserves. The keystone of the arch is a so-called National reserve association whose entire capital stock—about three hundred millions—is to be held by National banks, State banks, and trust companies, with earnings limited to five per

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cent, the excess over an additional surplus of twenty per cent of the capital going to the Government. The subscribing banks are to be formed into local associations grouped into fifteen districts, with a branch of the National association in each. The banks in each local association are to elect a board of directors, while each branch is to have its board elected by the local associations, with additional members representing the business interests. The board of the National association is to consist of forty-five directors, elected by the branch boards, together with the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, and the Comptroller of the Currency. The Governor or head of the National association is to be selected by the President of the United States from a list submitted by the board of directors.

The National reserve association is to be the agent of the United States Government and to keep the Government funds. Its business is to be limited to transactions with subscribing banks and with the Government, except that it may purchase domestic and foreign government securities or coin and bullion. The separate banks may count, as a part of the reserve which the law requires them to keep, any balance with or any notes of the National reserve association, which is itself to have a reserve of fifty per cent against its liabilities, with a tax upon any deficiency, increasing as the deficiency grows. It is expected, in short, to keep substantially the entire reserve of the country.

2. *The discount of commercial paper.* Every subscribing bank is authorized to accept commercial paper drawn upon it having not more than four months to run, properly secured and arising out of commercial transactions. A member of a local association may then apply to the association for a guarantee of such paper. Where the commercial paper—from which is expressly excepted paper issued for carrying stocks, bonds, or other investment securities—is very short-time paper, with a maturity of not more than twenty-eight days, the National reserve association may rediscount it when it bears the indorsement of the bank. In the case of longer-time paper, having not more than four months to run, the paper must be guaranteed by the local association. The National reserve association may also purchase prime bills or acceptances of banks or private houses, shall have power to establish agencies in foreign countries, and shall transfer on demand the balance of any subscribing bank to any other subscribing bank. Thus by one blow, as it were, the character of our credit facilities is completely changed. It may be added that National banks are given the power to establish savings departments and to loan these deposits, under proper restrictions, upon productive real estate.

3. *Note issue.* The plan proposes to transfer the right of note issue by gradual steps to the National reserve association. That is to say, the National banks are prohibited from issuing any notes over and above those now in circulation; but whenever a bank retires any part of its present issue it shall permanently surrender its right to reissue them. On the other hand, the National reserve association is to issue bank notes, on an entirely new basis. Instead of being secured by bonds, they must be covered, to the extent of at least one-third, by gold or other lawful money, and as to the remaining portion, by bankable commercial paper, as explained above, or by obligations of the United States. The elasticity which is lacking in the present system is secured by the provision that any notes of the reserve association in circulation in excess of nine hundred million dollars which are not covered by an equal amount of lawful money held by it shall be taxed at the rate of one and one-half per cent for the excess up to twelve millions, and five per cent for the excess over twelve millions. The object of this provision, which follows the German plan, is to render possible an unlimited issue of bank notes at the time of the year, or at peculiar junctures, when there is great need for them; but at the same time to provide for their speedy retirement when the exigency is past.

3. *The bond security.* The projected abandonment of reliance upon Government bonds as security for note issues makes it necessary to provide in some way for a disposition of the bonds now held by the banks. These are two per cent bonds, and, if thrown on the market, would sell far below par, their present value being a fictitious one, due to the special demand created by law. It is therefore provided that the National reserve association must, for a period of one year, offer to purchase, at a price not less than par and accrued interest, the bonds held by the subscribing National

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banks, the reserve association assuming responsibility for the redemption of outstanding notes secured by the bonds, and substituting its own notes. Furthermore, upon the application of the reserve association, the Secretary of the Treasury shall exchange these two per cent bonds for three per cents running for fifty years. The reserve association agrees to hold these bonds indefinitely, but the Secretary of the Treasury may permit it to sell not more than fifty millions a year, and he may at any time pay off the bonds. On the other hand, the reserve association pays to the Government a tax of one and one-half per cent annually upon the amount of bonds transferred to it by the subscribing banks. The net result is that the greater part of the existing public debt of the United States will hereafter cost the Government only one and one-half per cent interest—far less than anywhere else in the civilized world.

IV. The Results

If we were to sum up the advantages of the above scheme, we should put them under the following five heads:

1. Mobilization of credit. The substitution of bankable commercial paper in the place of bonds not only insures a flexibility of credit, which is lacking at present, but greatly enlarges the field of banking operations. The banks, instead of being restricted to call loans on the stock exchange and to investment in illiquid assets which repose quietly in their portfolios, will now have an opportunity of extending their operations to a far wider field of business activity, and of immediately converting the commercial paper into cash, if need be. Instead of remaining immobile, the assets of the American banks at once become mobilized and flexible.

2. Insurance against disaster. Under the present system, at the least sign of trouble each banker sits tight on his own little hoard of reserve and becomes suspicious of his neighbor. Under the new system, he has this gigantic reserve of all the associated banks to fall back upon. Instead of jealousy, there will be co-operation; instead of fear, there will be confidence. Just as the individual householder makes use of the fire insurance company against the risk of conflagration, so the individual bank will use the reserve association as its insurance against catastrophe. A repetition of the disgraceful events of 1907 will be impossible.

3. Democratization of facilities. The small bank is now dependent upon its own little capital and insignificant credit. Under the new system its assets will no longer be locked up, but it can at once rediscount its paper at the reserve association, and thus it will be able largely to increase its facilities to local constituents. Instead of centralizing banking power, the new plan will decentralize or democratize banking power.

4. Internationalization of business risks. At present, if the credit situation differs in this country from that abroad, we are virtually prevented from taking prompt advantage of the difference. In the crisis of 1907, for instance, when the replenishment of our gold supply became necessary, it was impossible to secure a large remittance from France, although in a similar emergency a decade previous England was in this way able to ward off disaster. Under the new system the United States will enter the concert of nations and will be able to take advantage of reciprocal facilities through its power to deal in foreign commercial bills and to conclude loans of gold. Just as the reserve association, in its National transactions, will decrease the risks of local banks, so in its international transactions it will still further diminish the risks of all banks.

5. Participation in world-wide profits. Nowadays, when an American has commercial dealings with South America or Asia, he pays by bills drawn, not on New York, but on London. London has been for over a century the world's financial center, and the banking commissions of the world's business amount to many millions a year. With the prodigious foreign trade of the United States there is no reason why a substantial share of these millions should not come to this country. What has prevented it is our primitive method of banking; what will render it possible is the new system. The American banker of the future will have a wider horizon and a broader opportunity, and if he avails himself of his opportunity there is no reason why the world's financial center should not ultimately be shifted from England to the United States, just as at the close of the eighteenth century it was shifted from Holland to England.

As over against all these salutary results which may be expected from the new scheme, we hear but two words of criticism—the danger of political interference, and the fear of control by some vast financial interest. The ingenious provisions of the law, however,

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should convince every unpartisan mind that these risks have been admirably guarded against. The advantages of the plan will accrue primarily to the small bank, not to the large one, for in time of trouble the large bank can generally take care of itself. But it is ultimately not the bank at all, but the general community, that will benefit. The projected revolution in financial methods is a beneficent one. We have groped long enough in the dark regions of finance; it is now high time to emerge into the light.

HIS MOTHER'S APRON-STRINGS

BY ISABEL C. BARROWS

THEY were never taut, unless, when he was a little boy, he used them as thongs to bind her as the "white captive" when they "played Indian." Indeed, his mother was sometimes criticised because she held them too slack, leaving the little fellow to his own devices. Her fear that when the hour of freedom struck he might slash and toss them away in the joy of independence had influenced her to give him a share of that independence as the childish years melted into youth and youth approached manhood. "You are spoiling him," folks said, but her instinct was her safe guide. The boy might be restrained by love, but not by bonds which by and by he could break.

So the years sped and the friendship between mother and son strengthened, and the ties that bound them to each other held firmer as life hurried on. He had not been given to her by birth, though his baby head had rested on her breast, but the dear mother who bore him and died could not have loved him more.

People said—poor people who did not know the joys of adoption on both sides—"How queer that he should still be tied to her apron-strings!" They did not say which was the slave, because really there seemed no compulsion either way, the strings were so slack.

It was always the same—when he was at school in France (sending her a postal card every day), or at boarding-school in his own land; in the public high school, or at college; in the university, or away in the forest and among the mountains busy with Government duties, the bonds that held mother and son together were lightly worn, yet through them ran an electric cord that pulsed as it felt the heart-beats of the two.

The mother was twoscore when the baby boy came into her arms. She is now nearly threescore and ten. The Psalmist's limit stands in full sight of her still unabated vision. The son is in the prime of his strength. I saw them the other day as I passed through Canada. Which one had gathered up the apron-strings and drawn the other I could not tell, but here they were, one coming from the South and one from the East, for ten days of Indian summer on a Northern lake. I accepted their hospitality and saw the comradeship between them.

A log cabin with an open fire was their shelter. The surrounding hills were gleaming with frost and the mountain tops were hooded with snow, but the sun smiled on the wintry landscape, as the fire in the cabin cheered the hearth. Life in this little camp was at its simplest. A farm a mile away supplied milk, butter, eggs, and honey, and a neglected garden still held potatoes, beets, carrots, and onions, all to be roasted in the hot cinders and ashes, while a shivering cabbage yielded up its heart for a salad. Biscuit browned before the fire and drenched with cream and maple syrup made the "guiltless feast," as Goldsmith's hermit calls it, surpass those described by Latin poets. Agate-ware dishes, washed and wiped in companionship by mother and son, matched the homely fare. Ticks filled with oat straw, with heavy blankets, furnished the beds, whose only luxury consisted of white-covered pillows.

Peace reigned within and without. No human sound reached the cabin hidden in the woods. The wild things drew near unafraid, for no gun would frighten them thence. Loons and ducks plashed in the cold water of the lake. Wild geese honked their way southward in a great "V" overhead. In the cedar-bush partridges were feeding, while robins, chickadees, blue jays, and crows were rejoicing in the prolonged Indian summer, and bear and deer were not far off in the denser wood.

I came upon mother and son unexpectedly

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as I walked over the hills. The sound of sawing drew me down to a pretty growth of young pines. They were trimming up the trees. The mother would saw off the branches within her reach—which would not be very high up—and the taller, stronger sawyer would take the upper limbs. It was a picture one does not see every day. The beautiful trees will remember it as they spread out their arms to wider air and sunlight.

Another day I found them, one on each side of a fallen ash, which stroke by stroke they were cutting up into fireplace lengths with a great cross-cut saw, while the wind played through the gray locks of the one and over the curly pate of the other.

When next I saw them, they were far out on the lake in a canoe, each with a paddle, and I heard a cautious old man who was collecting eggs for the fish-hatcheries sing out to her, "Aint' ye afeard to be out in a canoe in winter?" and I heard her quick response, tinged with pride, "Not when I am with my son." The blue jay in the maple top shrieked with delight, and the fish-hawk swooping down for a black bass tumbled over himself with pleasure. They were *all* birds of one feather.

With a lantern to guide me down the stony path, though the full moon ought to have done it, I made bold to seek their cabin after the early shades of evening had fallen. A glorious fire roared up the chimney, before which the son was stretched out in creature comfort. A good light was on the rustic table, and in a low chair the mother was reading "Pickwick" aloud! No daily paper penetrated into their corner of the silent world.

The ten days' holiday must be over now, and mother and son again separated by weary miles, with the din of trolley cars and automobiles in their ears. Only a memory of the Indian summer remains, but it will remain long enough, perhaps, for the legend to be handed down to generations yet to come, that "papa and grandmamma went camping in winter, just by themselves, because he was so tied to her apron-strings."

BUSINESS ILLUSIONS

BY HERBERT G. STOCKWELL

AS a boy, deep impression was made upon me by the sleight-of-hand performance of a "professor" who, as a part of his performance, easily duplicated the popular tricks claimed by Spiritualistic mediums to be beyond the power of unaided human means. After each trick the professor explained the process, so that we could readily comprehend how completely we had been duped by the optical illusions. Apparently supernatural occurrences were reduced by him to simple deceptions. We cannot trust the evidence of our senses in any other than very ordinary occurrences. Behind the scenes all happenings are within the scope of the ordinary knowledge of those taking part; to outsiders all was mystical because unfamiliar.

In business affairs there are those in every transaction who know the real conditions, and, knowing, may, if they choose, utter fearless opinion; while others who know not are too readily convinced, without proof, that apparent conditions are based upon facts.

The glittering palace may hypnotize our judgment and create erroneous convictions of prosperity, and the dress coat enters unknown and with ease to circles where the raveled sleeve could gain no hearing.

When thunder shakes the atmosphere, alarm creeps into its meaning. Business disturbances fill us with fear for the same reason. Many panics in business are nothing but stage-frights of the entire cast. Long and loud must the uproar continue to unsettle the calm of the principal actors.

A man who thoroughly comprehends his financial relation to the business world and knows it to be in proper adjustment rarely forgets the part he is called upon to play. Those who do not sit down and carefully calculate and test their debits and credits may suffer from the unexpected thrusting of cold facts through their illusions. Such a business man said one day to the president of his bank, "I've got to go into bankruptcy."

"Why?" inquired that official.

"Everybody is worrying me about accounts which I can't pay, and my attorney tells me that I ought to go into bankruptcy."

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"Is your business falling off?" asked the banker.

"No; I never had so many orders as have come in during the past month."

"Then what is the matter?" inquired the bank man.

"I don't know!"

The wise banker, after careful investigation, found his customer to be in a precarious condition financially, brought about by his utter inability to marshal his resources, which, when put into order through the coherent policy of those called in to assist, presented a better appearance. He had deceived himself into thinking that plenty of orders for his goods meant, in itself, without further effort, good business.

BUSINESS MEN MAY NOT BE GOOD BANK DIRECTORS

Another form of self-deception is exampled in many bank directors, who, having become successful in business, are sought by banks because of their supposed business-attracting qualities, while the public presumes that success as merchants or manufacturers qualifies such men to manage a bank successfully. Bank failures would rarely occur if the business men on the boards would take hold of the business of the bank with but a fraction of the power with which they gripped the business in which they made their money. Some bank directors quickly learn the fundamental principles of their new business, but many never comprehend its nature, nor do they even attempt to exercise the business acumen which enabled them to succeed in their own affairs.

CANNOT TELL THE WHOLE STORY

A friend said to me the other day: "We see so much in the newspapers and magazines nowadays about the means adopted by the big men to get where they are, that I feel like telling them that they do not give us all of the truth. They hold back the real secret of their success. Like Abraham Lincoln, I will illustrate my point by telling you a story. For many years we had an old Southern 'mammy' for our cook. She could cook to perfection. Her dishes were so fine that every one who visited us commented upon them. Frequently ladies would ask my wife to give them the recipe of some specially toothsome dish.

"Of course our 'mammy' did not know anything about a recipe, but she consented to show them how she did it. The ladies would go into the kitchen and watch the old 'mammy's' every movement, but at vital points in the process she would say, 'Oh, Missy, please hand me the spice jar on that there top shelf back there'—anything to get their eyes off her work, which, like a sleight-of-hand artist, she would secretly perfect by some deft manipulation. When the exquisitely cooked dish came from the oven, the enthusiastic ladies would go home believing that they were in possession of all of the facts.

"Now, when one of the rich men tells us how he became successful, I feel all the time that he is not telling all of the truth. He is holding the real secret up his sleeve."

Is this a sound complaint? Do our business leaders intentionally deceive their disciples? I think not.

When a man who has acquired great wealth tells us that he attributes his success to a rule "never to indorse an accommodation note," he is honestly groping for some one maxim to which he has consistently adhered; but there are thousands of failures among business men who have just as rigidly obeyed that precaution. That rule will never in itself bring success. But the curious thing is that the successful man is telling that to us because he cannot think of any other rule which he has steadily followed.

Big men break nearly every business rule when occasion seems to require it, but they would not be the big men they are if they should publish the exceptions to the rules of business. Every teacher says to his pupils, "Do as I *say*, not as you may think I *do*."

The actual inner life of any man who has made for himself several million dollars would read like the most romantic novel published. The unwritten laws kept and avoided, the heartbreaking failures, the nerve-racking deals, the necessities of each case, would be impossible for the millionaire himself to describe, and absolutely out of the question for the uninitiated to discern.

GOING OUT OF BUSINESS LIFE DIFFICULT

Then, when the very rich man plans to retire from business, he is really entering upon one of the most difficult series of deals which he has ever faced. His wealth is not evidenced by actual cash, as some might suppose. This is an illusion which causes misunderstandings on the part of those who have not been in close contact with such problems. The actual cash possessed by

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most of the millionaires does not exceed that in hand of many who are not reckoned among the wealthy. The bulk of a large fortune usually consists of stocks and bonds of railways, public service and industrial corporations, which must be marketed with rare skill if the full value is to be realized.

Stock market quotations form one of the most striking illusions in business. My stock is worth 98 to-day. Very well, I'll sell to the extent of $500,000. Can I go to the Stock Exchange and collect my money? Try it! Unless the operation is conducted skillfully, I will find the quotation rapidly dropping away from me.

Bank balances, securities, and evidences of indebtedness of all kinds are not money. They are promises to pay money under *ordinary* conditions. Panics, depressions, reorganizations, failures, may all seriously affect my paper fortune, and I cannot get out of business so easily as my friends suppose. This is especially true if the concerns whose promises I hold are those in the success of which my influence has been instrumental. I must remain in the active atmosphere to keep my fortune up to my appraised value, and the income up to the calculated proportions.

SHREWD IN HIS OWN BUSINESS, UNWISE IN OTHER BUSINESS

The treasurer of a very large coal operating company, in discussing business ability, said: "A man should stick resolutely to his own business. Now, I know a city Hebrew who is what I call a typical business man. His methods are the best of any I know. He is honest and shrewd, and making money in his business, yet he once told me that he never invested a dollar outside of his own business that he did not lose. He told me that if he could get back the money represented by worthless securities in his safe, he could retire from business on that sum alone."

Let a business man accumulate a bank balance larger than the ordinary necessities of his business require, and the knowledge of it somehow spreads like wildfire. Not slow to catch the information are troops of promoters with wonderful "gilt-edged" schemes to present to not altogether unwilling ears. The surplus money, at small or no interest, troubles the owner not a little. With flattery and plausible argument, the man who knows how to make money in his own business is persuaded to show how little he knows of other matters. Much as is told in the daily papers, we read of only a small proportion of the deluded men whose chagrin shuts off their complaints.

How may these illusions be exposed? Would you buy a high-priced horse without examination? Have all propositions examined by experts as you would a horse. Many men have their own accounts carefully and regularly audited, that every last dollar may be represented by something of value, who will, with little or no inquiry, hand over thousands of dollars to strangers for nothing whatever.

One day several years ago a wealthy manufacturer, so super-careful in the details of his own business that he would not let any other person handle the large volume of cash received in his office daily, went to an expert accountant with the shamefaced confession that he had signed a promissory note for a large sum of money in payment for stock of a Mexican plantation company. "When that promoter left my office, I felt that he had made a fool of me, but while he was there what he said seemed sensible," he said. Without going into details, it was found that the statements made to him, upon which he was persuaded to invest his money, were sufficiently fraudulent to compel a cancellation of the promissory note. This man recovered his senses before it was too late, but he is one of hundreds who are susceptible to the illusion of easily obtained gold.

I have in mind another man who retired recently as a successful merchant. He was induced to invest in a Cuban enterprise which existed only on the printed page recording brilliant prospects. All of his business life had been devoted to the slow accumulation of normal profits. Flattered, cajoled, and regaled with the illusions of wonderful returns, he became an astonishingly easy prey for sharpers who would not have been able to reach the vestibule of his understanding in his own line of business before being ejected.

A promoter once told me that he had a list of five thousand business men known as "easy marks" for swindling investment schemes.

"OVERWORK" PANICS

A less frequent form of illusion appears to men who, through irrational worry, become panic-stricken regarding their financial conditions when no real cause exists. Such a

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man walked hurriedly into a large National bank one day and blurted out to the vice-president: "I am going to fail. I owe your bank a lot of money, and you are going to lose it." The vice-president engaged the borrower in conversation while he sent for his credit statement, which showed him to be in good financial condition. "Why have you got to go into bankruptcy? Your statement of a month ago is all right," said the banker.

"I have been building an extension to my plant, and I have read in the newspapers that a man is doomed to failure who *over-extends* at the present time. That's what I'm doing! I'm over-extending, and I'm going to fail."

The banker caused an examination to be made, and found that the man had, through overwork and worry, reached a mental condition in which his ideas had become distorted. A needed vacation was arranged, during which the business was operated under the general direction of a friend of the bank. When the sick man returned, restored to health, he again took hold with normal eyes and senses.

ILLUSIONS IN LUXURIOUS APPEARANCES

What a prosperous appearance a new automobile creates! How we envy the increasing wealth and importance of our neighbors when they move rapidly past our homes with that quickly acquired air only to be found in the pose of those in the back seat of an automobile or stately, well-groomed carriage or box party!

Since "skimmed milk masquerades as cream," let us take comfort in the thought that the automobile owners, to gratify their desire, may have sacrificed something of importance which we still possess.

While fishing outside in a sailboat last summer, our captain, who lives in a small village on the coast, related an incident typical of many cases of automobile hunger. "My son," said he, "is a clerk in the bank. The owner of the corner store came sailing up the street last week with a machine which he had just bought. My son's wife asked my son why he didn't buy an automobile. He told her that he couldn't afford one. She said that she thought that they ought to be able to have one if that small storekeeper could afford it. Well, it turned out that the storekeeper had put a mortgage on his store to buy that automobile. When his machine wears out, he will still have the mortgage, with nothing to show for it."

Without the stimulations to the imagination which illusions cause life might seem tame indeed. We like to be deceived in some things; but in business matters let us see to it that the deception be not too easily accomplished.

A MAN OF PEACE AT HOME

FROM AN OUTLOOK CORRESPONDENT

HAVING occasion to visit the old historic city of Le Mans, in the Department of La Sarthe, in France, I remembered that Baron d'Estournelles de Constant had his château in the neighborhood, and that I had promised him, in case I should ever visit that section, to let him know. The result was an invitation to luncheon, and it was arranged that I should motor over with a mutual friend. I was particularly charged that the luncheon would be informal, and that I might wear a business suit. It was arranged that we should start about eleven o'clock, but at half-past eight M. d'Estournelles telephoned that there was to be an interesting ceremony at the National Military Academy of the little city of La Flèche, viz., the distribution of prizes, which had taken place annually since 1835.

This Military Academy is for younger boys, to prepare them thoroughly to enter one of the great military academies, such as St. Cyr, which corresponds to our West Point. So I arranged with our friend to meet me with the automobile at nine o'clock. When he came, I was surprised to find him in full-dress clothes—white tie, white gloves, and a high hat. Upon expressing my surprise, he said: "This is quite different from a family luncheon; it is a state function, and we must go in full dress." Hastily changing, I started on the thirty-mile ride to La Flèche.

The Military Academy is housed in an ancient abbey of the time of Henri IV.

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Behind it, in an old garden with fountains, flowers, and big trees, we found a "tribune" had been erected, upon which were seated the officials and guests of honor: old generals and younger colonels in uniform, and civilians in dress suits. Below in front were seated the populace and guests interested in the ceremony. On each side, in uniform, stood the young cadets, some four hundred in number. A military band was near by.

After an interesting address by a distinguished Deputy, a former prefect, the prizes were given out. The most interesting feature of this to me was the fact that each cadet chose who should crown him and hand him his prize. The crown consisted in some cases of a circlet of flowers, but usually of laurel leaves. A lieutenant in uniform, when each name was read, asked the boy whom he elected to crown him. Some chose this or that distinguished general, some Baron d'Estournelles, but many of them elected their own fathers or mothers. Preceded by the lieutenant, who carried the prize and the crown, the boy would walk to the person of his choice, who placed the wreath upon his head and the prize in his hands.

The presiding officer was kind enough to say that they had with them as a guest of honor an American whose ancestors went from France to America from that very province some three hundred years ago, and who had now come to pay a visit to their former home. What the old gentleman meant to say was what I have just stated, but what he said might have been construed to mean that I myself had left France three hundred years before and had just returned. I saw a smile of amusement on the faces of the audience, and a gentleman sitting next to me on the platform complimented me on my remarkable resistance to the ravages of time.

After the ceremony we adjourned to the balcony of the abbey and watched the prize-winners, borne upon the shoulders of their fellow-students, still wearing their crowns and preceded by a military band, parade around the courtyard, pelted with flowers.

Arriving at the château of M. d'Estournelles, we were first shown about the building. It was bought by the grandfather of the present Baron, and had been built three hundred years ago as a health resort by the Jesuit order of Paris. It had been fortified, and still retained many of the old features. At the four corners were turrets provided with little slits or loopholes, and it was surrounded by a moat crossed by a drawbridge. While some parts of the château have been preserved in their original form, that portion used as a dwelling is furnished with all modern taste and luxury.

We were received in the drawing-room, and when the luncheon was announced proceeded informally into the dining-room. There were fourteen at table, all interesting men and women. When the time arrived to serve the coffee, and the ladies would ordinarily be expected to withdraw, leaving the men to their cigars or cigarettes, the Baroness arose, and the whole company, of course, immediately stood up. I had been honored with a seat at the right of Mme. d'Estournelles. At my right was a retired admiral, formerly the Governor of Madagascar. He whispered in my ear, "You are now expected to give your arm to the Baroness." I instantly offered my arm, and we were followed by all the company, each lady on the arm of her neighbor, back into the *salon*. Neither cigars nor cigarettes were served or lighted. After a half-hour of music upon the harp, which was played most exquisitely by a daughter of the household, the men were taken for a walk through the grounds, and later joined the ladies on an esplanade in front of the château, where a formal garden separated the building from the banks of the river Loire. It was a hot afternoon. At each end of the garden, immediately upon the banks of the stream, were two inclosed pavilions, and M. d'Estournelles invited such of the company as desired to take a swim to retire to the buildings, where a man and a maid assisted them in putting on bathing-suits. After a refreshing bath, when the company had returned to the garden, tea was served under a beautiful spreading larch.

During the luncheon I had been surprised to receive a formal invitation, sent by the Mayor of the little village of Brulons, not far away, to attend a banquet at seven o'clock the next night, which was to celebrate the completion of an electric light service in the little town. I accepted. I was advised that this was to be a very democratic banquet, and that I should not dress for the occasion. The next night I motored over to the banquet. The little town was *en fête*. On the public square four platforms had been erected, and the populace were dancing when we arrived. The streets were hung with festoons of Chinese lanterns. The banquet was pre-

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pared in the large market which was under the Town Hall. It had been screened from the open air by wooden partitions, decorated on the inside by flags and shields and flowers. There were seats for one hundred and seventy-eight participants. To the sound of music, the invited guests marched in. The village firemen, most of them veterans with gray hair, wore their uniforms, as did the local gymnastic club of youths.

The menu had been prepared and the cooking supervised by a gray-haired ex-chef of the Jockey Club of Paris, who had retired to end his days near this little village, and had volunteered his services for the occasion. The banquet was excellent, but was indeed democratic. We sat on wooden benches; the soup was brought in by two men in a new wash-boiler in which it had evidently been prepared. I might say, in passing, that, although wine was served *ad libitum*, there was no sign of intoxication, or even of undue exhilaration.

Among the guests were Deputies and officials; the old Protestant schoolmaster, who carried a black hat reminding one of that of the music-teacher in "The Barber of Seville," and wore a long black coat which came nearly to his heels; there were farmers and shopkeepers and a few ladies.

When the time came for the speeches, we heard from the officials of the village, the subprefect of the Department, and others, and, to my consternation I was then called upon to speak—in French. I was extremely uncertain as to whether I could be understood, and, as there flashed through my mind the remarks of the officer who had introduced me the day before to the audience at La Flèche, I determined to ascertain whether I was to be understood by watching the effect of a joke; so, after paying my respects to "M. le Maire, M. le Député, M. le Sénateur, Mesdames et Messieurs," I said that the day before, in doing me the honor of presenting me to the guests at the distribution of prizes at the Military Academy, the gentleman who presided had said that he took pleasure in introducing to them a former resident of that section, who had left France three hundred years before and had now returned to his native land. As this was received with bursts of laughter, I went on to say that those present would doubtless understand and excuse my difficulty in speaking in French, because it was naturally to be expected that a man who had been expatriated for three hundred years would become rusty in the use of his native tongue.

In order to explain what happened next, which was one of the interesting and amusing features to me, I must set down something more of my speech. After saying the usual things when an American is speaking in France—about what we owed to the explorers La Salle, Champlain, Marquette, and others who had opened up our continent to civilization—I told them that my own researches had enabled me to confirm the fact that the very considerable number of Frenchmen who had emigrated from this province had gone to Canada, not for conquest or exploration or business, but in the train of a distinguished citizen of La Sarthe as laymen to support the missionaries in the conversion of the savages, and particularly to defend the colonists who had preceded them from the Iroquois. One hundred and twenty-nine of them had left that very vicinity in the train of one Valiquet, and had signed an agreement, which is still in existence, pledging themselves to fight and work for the salvation of their compatriots; they had sailed just in the midst of the terrible conflict with the Iroquois. These men had joined a religious order, and were as much inspired by religious zeal as had been the Crusaders who went to rescue the Holy Sepulcher from the Turks. Continuing, I told them that I thought history would record with higher honor the work of their own Senator then present with us, M. d'Estournelles, who had come to America, as he had gone to other countries, not for gain, nor yet as a soldier, but in the interests of international peace, and that they too would share in the honor which would come—indeed, had come—to M. d'Estournelles, because they had been willing that their Senator should absent himself for long periods from his seat in the Senate, for the greater good of the whole world.

At this point there were cheers and hand-clapping for M. d'Estournelles. Then came the climax. Some one suggested that, as the Baron had been much in America, he doubtless was familiar with the American "three cheers," which, the speaker understood, were customary when they wished to do special honor to a speaker in the New World. He therefore requested that M. d'Estournelles would show them how thus to honor their American guest. The Baron pulled me to my feet, and, putting his arm over my shoulder, and beating time with the

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napkin which he happened to hold, first showed them what to do—"*Un, deux, trois,* hip, hip, hurrah!" The assembly then stood up, each man taking his napkin and beating time, reciting, "*Un, deux, trois,* heep, heep, hoorrah!" There was hand-clapping again, and the banquet broke up. I omitted to say in the proper place that the electric lights were turned on at a signal, and that the engineer who had installed them was especially honored.

At the end of the banquet, when we strolled out into the warm summer night, I said to a gentleman who had been next to me, "I am surprised that none of these men smoke." He looked at me with equal surprise. "Oh, they all smoke; but, sir, there were ladies present!" Had I told the average American upon my return that there was no smoking, either at the luncheon at the château or at the banquet, I think he would have been greatly surprised, and might have said: "I would be less surprised had you told me that not only the men but the women smoked after luncheon." In repeating this to a gentleman of French extraction in New York, he confirmed my own observation that the home life of the real Frenchman—not the man one sees on the boulevards or in the cafés of Paris—is as clean and circumspect and altogether beautiful as can be found in the homes of any race; and he added: "Perhaps you have heard the story of the American who found himself in a railway carriage in France with a French lady. Taking out a cigar, he said: 'Madam, would it disturb you if a gentleman smoked in your presence?' She replied: 'I am sure I do not know, sir; no gentleman has ever tried it.'"

Baron d'Estournelles, in spite of his enormous correspondence and the demands of the world for his presence to advocate universal arbitration and the reign of international peace, has found time, as was testified to me from every side, to interest himself in the most minute details for the welfare of his constituents as a whole and as individuals, and is greatly respected and beloved. There is now running through the "Temps" of Paris a series of articles in which M. d'Estournelles describes his last journey in the United States, which extended from New York to New Orleans, to the Pacific Coast and back again through the Northwest and Middle West; and I sincerely hope that when these appear in book form, as they doubtless will, there will be an English translation; for this ex-Ambassador to Turkey and to Holland, ex-Secretary of the Legation at London, and honored Senator of France, has a power of observation and a gift of kindly expression which will lend to his observations, to his praise, and to his kindly criticism a value by which we all may profit.

A. R. L.

The Mood of the Son of Man

By Arthur H. Gleason

The world is not wishful to hear the cry of our bitter rebellion, because we go heavy-footed down saddened ways. It is weary for the touch of a comforter. And One came, enfolding ingratitude and hate with mercy, as the night of immense distances flows round the overheated earth. He reaches each human heart touched by injustice and the grayness of the common lot. He heals the loneliness of great cities, the pang and hurt of life. His holiness is not estranged by any sin of ours. His patient forgiving outlasts time and all our failing. Our frets and unsuccess are lulled in his tranquillity. The lowly are in him enlarged, for he reveals fresh values in humble folk and common things.

To those in sorrow he has been the incomparable and gentle friend. Fondly we had longed for a well-remembered face and for a voice that was very sweet in our ears. We were wistful for the patter of eager little feet that shall never run our way again, for the fresh beauty of a youth who has gone a longer quest than the earthly pilgrimage. To all of us disconsolate amongst our unforgotten dead, that humble advent in Bethlehem brought comforting. Sharpness of sorrow is eased by his consoling, and even for loss irreparable he gives the calm of a final hope. By our most hidden grief he is pierced, for there is a nearer way yet to his heart than by spear-thrust.

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THE SPECTATOR

IT was half-past three, and the little church was crowded. So was the narrow, up-on-end street outside, tilted as only a Siena street can be and remain practicable without steps. Remus can never have felt homesick in Siena (which he founded, according to Sienese tradition, after Romulus had driven him from Rome), since he had twice seven hills to make up for those he had shared with his treacherous twin. The church floor managed to be level, although the street dipped steeply past the door-sill, and the painted windows were bright with the afternoon sun. All around the sides, on the one row of wooden benches, and on the altar steps, sat the favored few who had come two hours early and secured all the available seats. The rest stood in the center and talked volubly while various cherubic Italian boys darted in and out, bringing news that the horse and the *fantino* were coming—yes, they were coming—but no! it was a mistake—it was not yet *quite* time! As a matter of fact, it was over an hour late; but what is that in Italy, and especially on the great day of the Palio? When a city has been holding a festival for seven hundred years, more or less, it can be trusted to bring it off without being kept too strictly to time.

There was a commotion in the street outside—undoubtedly the horse was coming! The crowd pressed back and made way for the priest, who advanced toward the altar with his acolytes. The Spectator was one of the lucky ones who had a seat, and thus could stand on it, backed by the wall, and see over the heads of the crowd. Every one on the benches did this, making a fringe against the wall, all anxious to assist at the blessing of the chosen horse for the Contrada dell' Oca—St. Catherine's Contrada, the most famous of all the seventeen far-famed *contradas* of Siena. Behold, then, a brilliant mediæval figure in the doorway—a youth in a helmet with nodding plumes of green, white, and red, clad in green tights, with red vest and white ruffles, and leading an unsaddled horse with mane braided in green, white, and red, and a plumy headpiece of tossing ostrich feathers in the same gay colors—the colors of the Contrada dell' Oca. Four pages in like costume, with red caps and peaked red shoes, attended horse and *fantino* up to the altar rail. It was a stirring picture—all but the horse. To tell the truth, the Spectator has seen better horses in any work-horse parade. Clumsy, spiritless, dull, no amount of plumes could uplift him into a mediæval charger.

"But it would not do to have a race-horse," explained the Spectator's companion, who had seen the Palio before. "You see, the Palio isn't a horse-race—well, it *is* a horse-race, of course, but it is a *historical* and *religious* horse-race (now don't laugh), and each *contrada* has a horse, and it is blessed in the church of the *contrada*. This whole Palio is run in honor of the Visitation, and because Siena won the battle against Florence in 1260. Siena put itself under the protection of the Virgin in that battle, and won; and so the two festivals of the Virgin, the Visitation and the Assumption, have always been kept with pomp and ceremony in Siena ever since. Sometimes they had bull-fights at first, and sometimes buffalo-fights, in the town square, but they finally settled on these races between the *contradas*, or city wards, as being the finest things ever, and so the Palio has come to be run in July and August of every year. But Siena doesn't want an ordinary horse-race. Why, the horses are all chosen by lot, so that no *contrada* can have an advantage over any other. They bring in a lot of country-bred horses the week before the Palio, round them up in the Campo, and try them out. If any horse is much better than the others, it is not allowed to run at all. Ten horses are chosen out of about the same grade, and the *contradas* draw lots for them, for only ten *contradas* are allowed to take part each time. The Contrada dell' Oca drew this horse, and they "don't think it's so bad!"

The horse by this time was being sprinkled by the priest, who shook what looked like a mop at it, scattering a shower of drops over its beribboned head. When it had been thus duly sprinkled and blessed, the pages led it out, followed by the crowd, to its stable, somewhere near, and the *fantino* turned out of the side door into a sort of sacristy, where banners adorned the walls, won at former Palios. The horse that wins carries off an embroidered or painted "pallium," whence the name Palio. But the *fantino* had not gone in to look at these trophies of former triumphs. He was after a suit of wadded armor, with which he endued himself. "It is to keep off the blows of the *nerbate*," a lad informed the Spectator. "They do not hit their own horses—no, each *fantino* hits the other horse or the other *fantino*." Evidently the Siena race had sporting features of its own; and the Spectator went to his box in the Piazza Communale that evening—for the Palio is run at 6 P.M.—with the certainty of seeing something out of the common run, so to speak.

The Campo is hardly the spot to be chosen for a race anywhere but in Siena. True, it is a magnificent bow-shaped place with the lofty, lonely Mangia tower rising at one side; but it is stone-paved, and tilted at all sorts of angles

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where the various streets come in, and hemmed round by stone palaces whose walls were built to stand mediæval sieges. However, Siena cannot help that. She has to have her race in her most public and popular place; and just as any horse will do if it is properly blessed, so it must run wherever it best suits to hold the festival. There are no patrons of the turf in Siena, anyhow; and as each Palio is held in the summer, when tourist travel is out of season, the race is for the people and by the people, and not meant to please or attract outsiders. The Spectator saw, in all the throng of forty thousand that filled the balconies, the stands, and the boxes put up against the buildings here and there, that covered the roofs, that surged to and fro in the paved Piazza, not more than a score or so of tourists. Siena in July is Siena for the Sienese.

Six mounted gendarmes came riding out of the archway of the Palazzo Communale as the signal sounded from the middle of the square. With truly Italian calm and delay they herded the crowds to the center, leaving a course clear all around, close to the walls and stands. Bang! went the signal torpedo again, and the Mangia bell began to ring, with a clear, soft note. Out from the side street at the end of the bow poured the *contradas*, like the Middle Ages come alive again, and headed by the great standard of Siena, with its seventeen shields for the seventeen *contradas*, and its wolf on top—the Romulus and Remus wolf, which Siena claims as proudly as Rome. Heralds and trumpeters followed, and then the first *contrada* in line, with its banner and its banner-bearer.

The banner-bearer of a *contrada* is the proudest and most graceful performer that the Spectator has ever seen. No drum-major ever compared with these Sienese marchers in strut or majesty. Before the standard-bearer, harnessed in festoons of flowers, the pages of his *contrada* cleared the way. Behind him came the horse and the *fantino;* but he represented the whole honor and glory of the Wolf, or the Unicorn, or the Elephant, or the Panther, or the Eagle, or the Dragon, or the Owl, or the Snail, or the Tree, or the Mountain, or the Wave, or the Shell, or the Hedgehog, or the Goose, or the Giraffe, or the Caterpillar, or the Tortoise (for thus are the wards of Siena named, instead of tamely being the First, the Second, and so on). His great banner, made of the finest silk, emblazoned with the *contrada's* colors and device, must be displayed with the nicest skill. Back and forth, up and down, he maneuvered it, now playing it around him in a circle, now tossing it thirty feet in air and catching it as it floated down in fully displayed splendor. One after another, in a sort of marching dance, came one gayly appareled group after another, each with pages, banner, *fantino*, and horse. Last of all appeared the great *carroccio*, or car, that holds the captured banners of the Florentine foe, with the Sienese standard waving in triumph above them all. The Spectator had seen that morning the original banner-poles of the battle standard reared against two of the pillars in the cathedral nave. Some people may bury the hatchet—Siena has kept hers bright, instead, ever since 1260.

The *carroccio*, amid the mistaken applause of the handful of outsiders and the respectful silence of the Sienese themselves, ranged itself, with its waving banners, against the Palazzo Communale. The signal banged away once more, the rope fell, and the ten horses, which had all been gathered at one point, now flung away together on the impossibly stony pavement, to see which could get round the Piazza three times and come out ahead. "Don't be worried—they won't beat their brains out against the house walls at the turns," said the Spectator's friend. "Every wall where that could happen is hung with mattresses. They have had over six hundred years' experience. The only danger is that one *fantino* will break another's head with his *nerbate*. Every whip is loaded, and every man is allowed to hit as he chooses. Did you ever *see* such an Alice-in-Wonderland race?"

The Spectator never did. But also he has never seen such a colorful and picturesque one. Riding bareback, screeching, shouting, galloping, knocking into the mattresses and each other, hitting out at rivals, urged on by shouts from every throat, the racers went round, once—twice—thrice. Nobody seemed to be getting hurt, and yet Derby Day was nothing to the excitement that surged from wall to wall of the great Piazza. It was a scramble and a mix-up from beginning to end, but of course one horse had to win; and it was the horse of the Contrada dell' Oca. The Spectator is sure that the blessing must have done it—nothing short of a miracle could have made that horse win anything! Shouting, gesticulating, rejoicing, the men and women of the winning *contrada* gathered about the victorious horse and rider. The silken banner of the Palio, flung over the silver basin of the commune, was handed to the conquering *fantino*, and he, and the horse, and the pages, and the standard-bearer, and the *contrada*, poured off down the side street towards the church, where the Palio was placed on the altar.

Then the feasting of the Contrada dell' Oca began. The Spectator does not know how long it lasted. But he walked down the steep street

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at eleven that night, and tables were set in it, and bands were playing, and everybody was feasting, even down to the babies (who looked as happy and wide-awake as possible), and olive-oil lamps made in the shape of white geese with red bills, out of which came the wick, were burning at every window, and altogether St. Catherine's Contrada was as bright and festive as all the others were dark and still. Each *contrada* wins now and then, though; so there is always a chance ahead, and nobody need be discouraged.

THE NEW BOOKS

My Larger Education. By Booker T. Washington. Doubleday, Page & Co., Garden City, New York. $1.50.

Dr. Booker T. Washington's new book, "My Larger Education," continues the autobiographical narrative of his "Up from Slavery." His education has been intensely realistic, in "learning from men and things." Half of these "chapters from my experiences" relate what he has learned from some exceptional white men, from experience with reporters and newspapers, from ex-President Roosevelt, from black men of many sorts, including "the intellectuals" and their "Boston mob," from his educational campaigns through the South, from meeting high and low in Europe, from observing education in Denmark. His great problem has been how to reconcile and unite the antagonistic forces of public opinion, racial and sectional, so as to inspire, uplift, and regenerate the Negro masses. Believing in education as the solvent influence, he set to work in "building a school around the problem." How he has succeeded in educating public opinion to agree with him, gaining larger education for himself in the process, forms this story of his experiences. No American of our time has so long and steadily, amid all cross-currents, pursued an undeviating aim at an ideal of National importance, or has become more widely influential than he. As seen through his testimony our dreaded race problem is a retreating cloud. Even in Mississippi, supposedly inhospitable to Negro interests, there are regions where the races seem to be getting on "as well as if not better than in any other portion of the Union." Yet only an inspiring beginning has been made. Wherever Dr. Washington's line has been followed he finds hostility transformed into co-operation. But he tells us that, "so far as concerns the masses of the Negro people, education has never yet been really tried"—tried in his realistic, virile way of teaching how to work out one's own salvation. There are too many sham colleges for Negroes, whose pretentious futility tends to excuse what remains of Southern hostility to Negro education. On the other hand, we are warned to regard newspaper reports and political speeches as "a very poor indication of the actual relations of the races." Aside from its report of the advancing solution of a National problem, this remarkable book, replete with telling facts, possesses a distinct pedagogical value for all professional teachers.

Robert E. Lee: Man and Soldier. By Thomas Nelson Page. With Portrait and Maps. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $2.50.

Mr. Thomas Nelson Page gives the thesis of his volume in the opening paragraph of Chapter IV, and repeats it in the opening paragraph of Chapter V: "And now, dealing with the fruits of character, we come to the proposition whether Lee was, as some have claimed, a great captain only for defensive operations, or was a great captain without reservation or limitation." Mr. Page has demonstrated what he set out to demonstrate, that Lee was a great captain without reservation or limitation. His aggressive campaign in the battle about Richmond, when he outgeneraled and defeated McClellan, proves Lee's ability in aggressive campaigning. But the country wanted, not an apologia, which Lee did not need, but a biography, written in calm indifference to charges against him or misinterpretations of him, and that still remains to be written. It is doubtful whether it can be adequately written by any one except a foreigner who would look in a disinterested way at the Civil War and the issues which it involved.

Works of George Meredith (Memorial Edition). Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. (Sold by subscription.)

The Outlook has already commented on this handsome Memorial Edition, now complete in twenty-seven volumes, the final and complementary volume being of interest mainly to students of Meredith, and to that considerable class of readers who may be described as "Meredithians." It contains the variant readings of the novels and the poems, a portrait, a bibliography which is very complete, and two poems not found in earlier publications. Meredith was constantly revising his work, and in the case of some of the earlier stories these revisions were extensive. This was particularly true of "Harry Richmond," "Evan Harrington," and "Richard Feverel," the variance in text of these three stories filling more than two hundred pages; the older stories suffered less from revision. The lovers of Meredith, and they are an increasing number, could hardly ask for the

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work of this very interesting man of genius, analyst, and psychologist in a more attractive form.

A Girl's Student Days and After. By Jeannette Marks. The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. 75 cents.

Miss Jeannette Marks, whose "Through Welsh Doorways" has given great pleasure to lovers of good reading, has put into book form some of the results of her contact with girls in her student and teaching life. "A Girl's Student Days and After" is in no sense a novel treatment of the responsibilities of young womanhood, but it may call attention to the dual character of school life—the perhaps unemphasized side occupied by the girl herself, and allow her over-counseled teacher a rest.

Works of Henrik Ibsen. Edited by William Archer. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. (Sold by subscription.)

Ibsen is certainly having his day. It was late in beginning; it has been at high noon for a good many years; and, so far as the English-speaking peoples are concerned, its coming and its continuance have been largely due to Mr. George Brandes and to Mr. William Archer, the latter of whom is the editor of this new Viking Edition, the first four volumes of which have now appeared, to be followed at short intervals by nine additional volumes. These books follow the general pattern of the Library Editions of Meredith, Stevenson, and Kipling issued by the same publishers, and promise to be substantial and handsome pieces of book-making. The plays fill eleven volumes, and are arranged in chronological order. The twelfth volume is to be made up of selections from Ibsen's literary remains, and the thirteenth is to contain Mr. Gosse's very readable biography of the dramatist. The four volumes at hand contain some of the best-known plays: "Love's Comedy," with an introduction by Dr. Herford; "The Vikings at Helgoland," "The Pretenders," with an Introduction by Mr. Archer, and in his translation; "Brand," translated by Dr. Herford, and supplied with an Introduction from his hand; and "Peer Gynt" in the translations of Messrs. William and Charles Archer. The text in these plays is already, for the most part, familiar to American readers, but the introductions present some information not accessible before; and the edition can hardly fail to take its place as definitive and final, so far as anything is final in the publication of the work of a standard author.

American Woman and Her Home (The). By Mrs. Newell Dwight Hillis. The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. $1.

Mrs. Newell Dwight Hillis is doubly gifted with insight and attractive expression. Her articles upon "The American Woman and Her Home" have commanded attention as being practical and suggestive. She is a wise student of present conditions, realizing that the situation is a peculiarly delicate one, yet strong in hope for the outcome in our country. She reviews with justice the successes and failures of American women, considers school and college possibilities for her, sees her as a factor in business, and returns at length, by way of social and religious activities, to her place in the home. Readers of The Outlook have been benefited by Mrs. Hillis's able discussions, and must agree with her sensible conclusions. Among others is her belief that the bottom cause of the restlessness of our women is the craving for appreciation—a craving, we may add, largely the growth of the traditional attitude of our men. We cannot blind ourselves to the truth that in their mad rush for wealth men are making a fatal mistake, and are often responsible for women also losing their heads over things that money will buy, or the ease and leisure that it will provide. The book is wise, helpful, and most timely. It should be read by every woman who has even a glimmer of desire to see things clearly. In connection with the "Autobiography of an Elderly Woman" and "Mother," with one or two other recent publications, it indicates the presence of a wholesome public opinion.

The Librarian at Play. By Edmund Lester Pearson. Small, Maynard & Co., Boston. $1.

Mr. Pearson's stories about boys, "The Believing Years," were sufficient evidence that he is a gentle humorist. These ingenious stories about library work are immensely amusing. The oddities of the librarian's dealings with cranks and chronic faultfinders, the humbug of some readers' pretenses at literary tastes, and other salient points are presented in a form which is closer to that of fiction than that of essays. Two or three titles will give a little suggestion of the contents: "The Interest Gauge," "Vanishing Favorites," "By Telephone: A Literary Meet," and "The Desert Island Test."

Vicissitudes of a Lady in Waiting, 1735-1821 (The). By Eugene Welvert. Translated by Lilian O'Neill. The John Lane Company, New York. $4.

"The Vicissitudes of a Lady-in-Waiting" is another volume added to the long line treating of the intricacies of French Court life during the reigns of Louis XV and his unhappy successors, including the years from 1735 to 1821. Madame de Narbonne was lady-in-waiting to Adelaide, the daughter of Louis XV, and was perhaps the latest and most perfect example of that royal atmosphere. The author of her biography, Eugène Welvert, is her defender against many chroniclers of that period, whose voluminous writings fill our shelves. Her loyalty to her exacting yet generous mistress was unquestioned, and she followed her into exile, dying at length in obscurity and comparative poverty. Her son, Louis de Narbonne, is an interesting character, and many pages are devoted to his portraiture. Not to enter into the complex politics of the time, an anecdote or two showing

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the wit of this courtier and warrior are worth while. When he entered Napoleon's service (to his mother's shame), the Emperor said to him, "She does not like me; is it not so?" The ready answer came, "No, sire, so far she has only learnt to admire you." Again, when Napoleon, in anger against the Pope, said, "If he will not listen to reason, let him keep his religion. I will arrange mine with my own clergy," Narbonne said, "Don't think of such a thing, sire; we have not enough religion in France to make up two." This volume may be read in connection with the reminiscences of the Countess de Boigne and the records kept by Comte de Merq Argenteau of his letters to Marie Thérèse, the mother of Marie Antoinette.

Nineteenth-Century English Ceramic Art. By J. F. Blacker. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $3.50.

A book of great practical use to the collector and in itself also of artistic value. Some of the reproductions of famous vases make unusually fine plates. A few of them appear in color. Mr. Blacker is a recognized English expert in ceramics. This volume is the first in a proposed Nineteenth Century Historical Art Series.

Frank Brangwyn and His Work. By Walter Shaw Sparrow. Dana Estes & Co., Boston. $3.50.

Frank Brangwyn, at forty-three years of age, ranks as one of the most original artists of modern Europe—powerful, daring, versatile, a master of color and design. A study of his picturesque career is a fascinating experience even to those who know art only in a general way. This volume is therefore welcome, with its clear, comprehensive treatment and ample illustration. If we were asked to point out the passage in this volume which best describes the peculiar genius of the artist, we would quote the following, from the chapter in which the author discusses Brangwyn's brush-craft: "The surface look of a Brangwyn picture is indescribable—swift, deft, impetuous, ruthless touches here, gliding touches there, plots of color contrasted with spaces of free, simple painting, and never a thing that seems costive. Great emotional energy is shown throughout; and you learn that when a passage here and there is not equal in felicity to the others, it arises, not from any carelessness, but because an inspiration spent itself and could not be recalled." Mr. Sparrow feels about British art somewhat as did Millet when he said of Jules Breton's delicate peasant girls, "They are too pretty to stay in the village!" In Brangwyn he finds that touch with living forces which he would have many other artists of his country acquire.

Federal Corporation Tax Law. By Thomas Gold Frost, Ph.D, Matthew Bender & Co., Albany, New York. $4.

The Federal Corporation Tax Law was heartily supported by The Outlook at the time of its enactment in 1909, on the ground that it would provide not merely a means of revenue for the Federal Government, but more especially a means of exercising Federal regulation of corporations. Although the constitutionality of the law was questioned by lawyers of high standing, The Outlook gave considerable space at the time to its reasons for believing that it was both desirable and Constitutional. The Supreme Court declared the law to be Constitutional, and it is now a part of the working code of the country. The present volume is a clear and useful review of the enactment of this important act, of its character, of the Supreme Court decision sustaining it, and of the Governmental directions for its proper observance. It is perhaps one of the few law books which it is helpful and safe for a corporation manager to consult without the advice and assistance of a lawyer.

Pinocchio: The Tale of a Puppet. By C. Collodi. Translated by M. A. Murray. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $2.50.

Some story-tellers make puppets out of what they allege to be living characters. Collodi has reversed the process and has made a living character out of a puppet. No child ought to be allowed to grow up without becoming acquainted with "Pinocchio." It is a classic like "Alice in Wonderland." This edition is a capital one, and the illustrations, both in colors and in black and white, are not only well drawn but are such as to be appreciated by young readers.

Scotland. By Robert S. Rait. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.

This issue of the English series called "The Making of the Nations" has special value because it gives in a single volume of moderate compass a study of the history and great men of Scotland. The author has written largely on the general subject. Here he has shown wisdom in the selection of the more important Scottish historical events for treatment, in the elimination of the great mass of complicated detail which would be out of place in a popular book, and in his graphic narrative style. The book has many well-selected illustrations.

Goethe and His Woman Friends. By Mary Caroline Crawford. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $3.

With a desire to defend Goethe from his critics, Mary Caroline Crawford has produced a volume (which of necessity is large) describing "Goethe and His Woman Friends." Beginning with an appreciation of the poet's mother, to whom, we are assured, Goethe always gave his confidence, a long list of names, more or less familiar, is made up. From Gretchen, the prototype of Marguerite, who enslaved the boy of sixteen, to Ulrike von Luetzow, "the poet's last love," a girl of seventeen who was willing to marry him, a man of seventy-four, the catalogue flows on. Such personalities, diverse as Charlotte, the Countess von Stein, Angelica Kauffmann,

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the child Bettina, and Christiane Vulpius, the woman he made his wife after several years of consideration, need no added biography. The author is an avowed partisan, and believes she is giving the facts in each case, denying at times even Goethe's interpretation of his relations with women. It is allowed that he was a man of "overflowing lovingness," and with that we can let it go. Many portraits and many detailed descriptions of somewhat unimportant events make up a book that will attract lovers of personalities.

Transformation of Krag (The). By Eugene P. Lyle, Jr. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. $1.20.

There are some unusual points in the plot of this story. Krag vows to ruin the brutal rich man who humiliated him by slighting his widowed mother, and he carries out his purpose, sacrificing everything in his way. But in the end the innate nobility of his nature develops along with his hatred, and triumphs most dramatically. He becomes a doctor, and marries the daughter of his enemy, almost by force, though he truly loves her. After deep-laid planning to undermine the wealth of his father-in-law, he disappears and is lost for years. He spends this time among the Yaqui Indians, and becomes their trusted adviser and physician. From this point the tale is unique. The pictures of the desert, the "desert rats," the Indian camps, the *pacificos*, the Mexicans, and the Americans who work the silver mines, are unusually graphic. The agony of spirit undergone by Krag in his relentless pursuit of his enemy culminates in an overwhelming surprise as he finds himself capable of mercy and of expressing love.

Recollections of a Parisian. Edited by his Daughters, A. Branche and L. Dagourt. Translated by Lady Theodore Davidson. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $3.

Random, rambling reminiscences of a French physician who lived in or near Paris "under six sovereigns, two revolutions, and a republic—1789–1863." For those who like this sort of thing this is a pretty good thing of the sort.

LETTERS TO THE OUTLOOK

SOCIALISM IN MILWAUKEE

In an editorial of November 18 you say: "The experience of Milwaukee with a Socialist city government has not brought any disaster, and the voters are now readier than before to believe that other places may profit by a similar experience." If you refer to the majority of voters in Milwaukee, I think that you have been misinformed. It is true that "misery loves company," but I hardly believe that voters here owe such a grudge against any other city as to wish for it a Socialist government; and if you mean voters in general of other cities, my advice would be to watch Milwaukee a little while longer, and to get information, not from papers published in California or even in New York, but from sources nearer home. The great majority of Milwaukee citizens would agree that no city government we have ever had was so partisan. Civil service reform has been cast to the winds, the party having done its best to appoint "comrades" to every job, from bridge-tenders to the Chief of Police and Fire, and to capture even the judiciary. The Police and Fire Departments have been for years in charge of a non-partisan Board of Commissioners, and the Chiefs of both have been very efficient and have been undisturbed in office for years, and the sign has been up to any and all parties, "Hands off," but the sign has been ruthlessly torn down, the Fire Chief deposed as far as it can legally be done, and the bloodhounds are after Chief of Police Janssen, a man with a reputation second to none in the United States. Expenses, and consequently the taxes, have been materially increased. The business of the city never was handled in so weak, childish, and unbusiness-like a fashion. Street work which should have been completed in October was scarcely commenced in September. Winter is upon us, work necessarily suspended, and the consequence is that some of the business streets are well-nigh impassable and damage suits are threatened by indignant property-holders. Before the Socialist party came into power they demanded and promised work for all at increased wages and shorter hours of labor. Excepting in a time of general panic Milwaukee has never had so many unemployed as now, and the hours in many homes will be long indeed before the winter is past and gone. The Common Council is such a band of brothers that impeachment proceedings were commenced last week against the Mayor, City Attorney, and City Clerk in the Council; but as the resolutions were referred by the President, himself a Socialist, to a committee of five Socialist Aldermen, it is safe to bet that they will report in favor of the defendants. Oh, yes, Mr. Editor, there has been no disaster as yet! Milwaukee is tough, very tough, a strong, husky, growing city, and can stand a great deal, but it takes a great optimist to see much profit in our experience with practical Socialism, even

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with clipped wings, excepting as the city may serve as a horrible example for other cities not to follow. "MILWAUKEE."

MARQUIS KOMURA

Marquis Komura, whose death is reported from Tokyo, was one of Japan's ablest and most patriotic statesmen. I happened to see something of him during my stay in the Far East, and it may be proper for me to give briefly, in a letter to The Outlook, the opinion that I formed of him, and some of the facts upon which it was based. He impressed me, personally, as a man of slight, frail, rather delicate physique, whose natural intelligence and ability had been greatly increased and broadened by his American culture. He was a graduate of Harvard—class of 1877—and his mind, in its way of looking at things and dealing with them, was quite as much American as Japanese. In the comparatively slight personal intercourse that I had with him he seemed to me to be a modest, frank, and sincere man, extremely well informed in all fields, but retiring rather than self-assertive in demeanor and methods. He was not, apparently, in robust health, and made upon me an impression of physical delicacy and fragility; but he had nevertheless a strong character, and was fully capable of assuming any responsibility that might devolve upon him, and of bearing, without a sign of weakness, any mental or nervous strain to which he might be subjected. In the long negotiation with Russia that preceded the war of 1904–5 he showed not only conspicuous ability and foresight, but fairness and self-control combined with unshakable resolution. In this period of his career he had, of course, the advice and support of the Elder Statesmen, who shared with him the responsibility and the strain; but when he went to Portsmouth to negotiate terms of peace, he had to play a more independent and self-reliant part, and to assume personal responsibility for decisions that he knew would disappoint and anger at least nine-tenths of his patriotic countrymen. On the eve of his departure from Tokyo he is reported to have said to a friend: "I am about to make myself the most unpopular man in Japan; and when I return, I shall be fortunate if I am not mobbed." Whether he really expressed himself in precisely these terms or not I am unable to say; but he unquestionably knew before he left Tokyo that the most he could possibly hope to get from Russia would fall far short of the least that the Japanese people expected. The fact that he was willing to go to Portsmouth in these circumstances, and to make himself the most unpopular man in Japan by seeming to surrender half the fruits of the great victory won in Manchuria, is a convincing proof of his moral courage and his high sense of duty.

There is a widely prevalent impression, even among educated and well-informed Japanese, that their country lost, through weak or blundering diplomacy at Portsmouth, a large part—if not the greater part—of all that they had fairly won by force of arms in the field. But it is an erroneous impression. At the time when the peace negotiations began, Japan was near the end of her resources. She was outnumbered in Manchuria by at least one hundred thousand men, and it was extremely doubtful whether her commanders would be able to drive the Russians out of their strong intrenchments north of Mukden. The Japanese general staff did not think it possible to defeat Linievitch and capture Harbin and Vladivostok without an addition of ten divisions to the Japanese force then in the field; and they had rifles for only three divisions. Financially, too, Japan was near the end of her resources. She might possibly have carried on the war for another year, and if she had been driven to the wall she doubtless would have done so; but the prolongation of hostilities would have laid upon her people a burden of debt under which they would hardly have been able to stagger. It was altogether best for her, therefore, to make honorable terms of peace if she could. The Japanese people, who did not know the real state of affairs, thought that they were entitled, and were in a position to demand, a cession of territory and a large pecuniary indemnity; but the sane and reasonable men who controlled the destinies of Japan at that time had no such ideas. Their instructions to Komura were that he should insist, first, upon retention of Port Arthur and Dalny; second, upon complete freedom of action in Korea; and, third, upon possession of the Manchurian Railway up to the point where it was still held by the Russians. If he could get more, well and good; but this was the irreducible minimum. Marquis Komura and Baron Takahira obtained all of these concessions, and got the better half of the island of Saghalien in addition. It was all that Japan had fought for, and all that she could reasonably expect to obtain; but it fell so far short of popular anticipation and hope that it excited a national feeling of indignation and wrath, and made Marquis Komura the most unpopular man in the Empire. Even now the Portsmouth Treaty seems to lie as a sort of shadow on his grave, and many Japanese still think that they lost half the fruits of their Manchurian victory through his weakness or incapacity. It is a profound mistake. Japan could not possibly have extorted a pecuniary indemnity from Russia—as Germany did from France—because on the mainland of Asia she did not hold a foot of Russian territory, and was not in a position to threaten any vital part of the Russian Empire. She had not even driven her enemy out of China. If the Government of the Czar had not been embarrassed and weak-

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ened by a formidable revolutionary movement, it probably would not have consented to negotiate at all, because its army in Manchuria was much stronger than it had ever been before. The representatives of Japan, therefore, were not outwitted or faced down at Portsmouth. On the contrary, they were as successful in diplomacy as their generals had been in war, and they obtained better terms, perhaps, than Japan's existing resources and military position entitled her to demand. The nation, of course, expected much more; but the nation did not know what Marquis Komura knew. He had the moral courage to undertake a task that could not possibly be performed to the satisfaction of the Japanese, and he rendered a great service to his country at the cost of his personal reputation and his renown.

The late Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs was one of the ablest, most loyal, and most unselfish men that the "era of enlightenment" has produced; and the people of the United States in general, and Harvard University in particular, have a right to feel proud of their share in the training of his faculties and the development of his character.

New York City. GEORGE KENNAN.

WAR AT CHRISTMAS-TIME

It is many years since I have spent a Christmas in America. In 1893, I, being a licensed physician in New York and Massachusetts, went out to Constantinople, and obtained from its Imperial School of Medicine the first license ever granted to a woman "to practice medicine and surgery in the whole extent of the Ottoman Empire." Since then Christmas-time has found me either doing rescue work on the heights of Hermon or in hospital and tent along the coasts of Tyre and Sidon. Last year we celebrated Christmas in the only tuberculosis sanatorium for the homeless consumptives of Syria. Returning here, it is indeed beautiful to share in the joy and gladness of all the people at this time; to watch the growth of the peace movement and to hear the messages from press, platform, and pulpit, "Peace and good will to men." But each glad greeting, the illuminated homes, shops, and churches, speaking of peace and good will and gladness at the birth of Christ, can bring no real joy for me while I know that the people among whom I worked so long and who are so dear to me, living in the very land from which the Christmas song of angels first came, are suffering at this time. Disease and death from cholera, plague, and smallpox are throwing their shadow athwart the land. War and what always follows in its train false rumors of impending blockade of the Turkish coast, have for a month past filled the minds of the people. The war may, if prolonged, become the beginning of a much larger strife. Inside the Ottoman Empire people are beginning to feel the effects of the war. No merchandise from Europe can be obtained except for cash payment. Trade relations are greatly disturbed. Money becomes scarcer every day. All necessities of life can be obtained only at fancy prices. One can easily see what danger to shipping is entailed by the extinguishing of the lighthouses in the Adriatic and all along the Turkish coasts. Because coal is contraband of war, the managers of the gas company threaten darkness to Beirut unless neutral ships can avoid the movements of the Italian fleet. False telegrams have kept the people of the coast cities of Syria in daily dread, for a month past, of the arrival of the Italian fleet. One day, a Sabbath day too, there was a panic, owing to a telegram announcing that the Italian fleet was actually on its way to bombard the coast. The fear and consternation and dread of the Moslem women and children, not to mention the men, were pathetic and pitiful in the extreme. All shops were closed, and every one that could do so attempted to leave for the interior. It is needless to say that the telegrams of alleged Italian atrocities in Tripoli have greatly inflamed Mohammedan fanaticism, and this is sure to result in anti-foreign and anti-Christian demonstrations. What message does this speak to you? It is wonderful to me to see how strong is the peace sentiment among the American people, and to hear their sympathy when they are told of the great distress and suffering entailed by the war between Italy and Tripoli upon all the inhabitants of the Ottoman Empire. So far we, as Americans, have suffered little compared with European nations. We have been freer from political suspicion than any other nationality, because of our geographical location as a nation. But if, as feared, the Italians should, as a means of ending the war, blockade the Turkish coast, the effect upon the educational and philanthropic work done by Americans during the past seventy-five years would be serious indeed. "Pray for the peace of Jerusalem. They shall prosper that love thee." It is my most earnest wish, as I am now returning to my work of help and healing, that every pulpit in the land should, at this Christmas season, unite with me in praying that Italy, called a Christian nation, may be willing to exemplify in her actions the message of peace and good will which Christmas should bring to all. Our earnest prayers and their outcome may be the means of putting an end to this strife, so that we can all together unite in rejoicing that the angels of peace and good will may return and hover once more over the hills of the Holy Land and the little city of Bethlehem where Christ, the Prince of Peace, was born!

MARY P. EDDY.

New York City.

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BY THE WAY

Amherst College is to have a new fraternity house, which will be one of the finest in the country. It is for Psi Upsilon, and is to be erected on the site of Noah Webster's old home. At the laying of the corner-stone recently Mr. Herbert L. Bridgman, speaking of Psi Upsilon, said: "There is nothing in this fraternity upon which the most searching light of ethics might not be turned. Among its members have been two Presidents of the United States, one of Amherst, two of the sister State college in Amherst, and many of other colleges and universities."

Enter the noiseless typewriter!—the machine, not the lady, who prefers, we believe, to be called a typist. This longed-for improvement in the familiar instrument is described as being effected by a sliding arrangement of the key-bars which results in silent pressure instead of noisy impact. Such a machine should be welcome in offices where the nerve tension is severe and incessant, as it is in most American business houses during the "rush hours."

An Oregon man's philosophy about the way to use the family income is perhaps worth quoting. "If families bought more at a time," he says, "they would save a lot of money. Just buying enough food to last until to-morrow morning and spending the rest of your money for something else is a mighty poor way of getting along in the world." Very true, unless "the rest of your money" happens to be required for rent, clothing, and doctors' bills. Undoubtedly buying provisions at wholesale makes for economy, but this is impracticable for the average family. And then how could they be stored in a city flat?

The wreck of the Maine, now that the investigation as to the destruction of the vessel has been completed, is to be towed out to sea and given fitting burial in the deep. Parts of the wreck, however, are to be saved as memorials. A Coney Island company offered to pay a large sum for the wreck for exhibition purposes, but the proposal was unanimously rejected by the House of Representatives, to its lasting credit.

"The public hanging of a criminal used to be considered a wholesome and edifying spectacle. The law has abolished that. The printing of the details of a horrible crime in the newspapers is still regarded as legitimate. The law should abolish this also, and restrict these things to legal or sociological books." So said an indignant New Yorker one day last week upon scanning the papers after the perpetration of a peculiarly atrocious murder. Now if some other New Yorker will devise a law that will suppress the publication of these sickening and demoralizing details of crime and yet preserve the "freedom of the press," most of us will vote for him as a lawmaker.

The steamship Delhi, with royalty aboard, but not going to the Durbar in spite of her name, was wrecked two weeks ago on Cape Spartel, Spain. King George's sister, the Princess Alexandra, Duchess of Fife, narrowly escaped death. The cutter in which she was being taken from the steamer was swamped, but the Princess was rescued by the united efforts of the Duke of Fife, Admiral Braddock, and a passenger without title.

The aeroplane man's lot in warfare is to be a hard one. Besides the dangers from his own apparatus, the gunmakers are planning special weapons for his destruction. Thus we read in the "Scientific American" that an experimental one-pounder for aeroplane destruction is being made which will throw its shell to a height of 18,000 feet. Ordinary gun mounts allow an elevation of only 15 degrees and are useless for aeroplane warfare, but this new gun may be fired from an elevation of 85 degrees, and "bomb-droppers" will do well to be wary when they come within its range.

A guest's first duty, some people think, is to flatter his host's children, especially if the host is an exalted personage. But this was not so in those ancient times when children were to be seen, not heard, according to a story told on himself by the Earl of Aberdeen. When he was a child, the celebrated orator John Bright paid the household a visit. "I recollect," says the Earl, "that, with a feeling that the presence of an eminent personage ought to be marked by some special observance, I volunteered to recite some verses to him. His commendation was so justly reserved that I was never again tempted to repeat the experiment." The cool reception did not at all lessen the child's respect for the great Quaker statesman.

Armored automobiles are now being used by banks and safe deposit companies for the transportation of valuables, says a contributor to the "Bankers' Magazine." Each car is, in effect, a portable safe, the body of the car being lined with steel, and there being an entrance only at the front of the vehicle, which carries two armed guards besides the chauffeur. Boston, it is said, has been the leader in displacing the old-fashioned bank messenger, with his satchel in hand, by these new instrumentalities for transporting money and valuables.

Daniel H. Burnham, the Chicago architect, is, it is reported, to formulate plans for beautifying the borough of Brooklyn, New York. He recently spent several days in investigating conditions in that city, and made a number of valuable suggestions as to improvements.

Of all the dark, dreary, "spooky" places in the universe, observes a Western railway man, the average waiting-room of the country railway station at night stands pre-eminent. This is the result of using the kerosene lamp—usually greasy, untrimmed, and neglected—as the source of illumination. The remedy proposed is the use of denatured alcohol as an illuminant. This, as used on German railways, is said to give a more powerful light than gas or electricity, and the lamps are smokeless, require no trimming, and are economical in cost and maintenance.

"There are many quaggas on the plains of East Africa, sometimes a herd of a thousand or more," says a writer in "Collier's," in describing recent hunting experiences. A century ago, when Pringle wrote,

> "The timorous quagga's shrill whistling neigh
> Is heard by the fountain at twilight gray,"

vast numbers of these graceful animals roamed over the veldt in South Africa. The true quagga is now entirely extinct, but the Boer hunters have always styled as the "bonte quagga" the animal which the English call the plains zebra. The East African animal is a variety of the Burchell's zebra or "bonte quagga."

Only twenty-five white men, it is said, have as yet beheld the most remarkable natural bridge in the world—the Rainbow Bridge of southern Utah, compared with which the famous Natural Bridge of Virginia is almost insignificant. The Rainbow Bridge is 309 feet high and has a span of 278 feet. The Virginia bridge has a span of only 45 feet and is 200 feet high. The Rainbow Bridge arch exceeds the length of the longest masonry arch in the world by 65 feet.

The New York "Sun" has a new owner and publisher, Mr. William C. Reick, who is also connected with the New York "Times" and the Philadelphia "Public Ledger," and was for some years the general manager of the New York "Herald." Mr. Reick is forty-seven years of age, was born in Philadelphia, and was educated at Harvard and at the United States Military Academy.

A facetious subscriber writes: "In The Outlook of December 16 it is remarked, 'By the Way,' that broken crockery should be fed to hens in order to supply material for their egg-shells. It must be the production of porcelain nest eggs that the editor had in view; the common breakfast variety have shells of calcium carbonate, a material that no hen could extract from broken tableware." The recommendation was quoted from an exchange; probably the broken crockery was meant to be used as "grit," without which the long-suffering hen, like her owner sometimes, would have to give up work entirely.

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